

Howard C. Redden
Written in 1862
Partly in New York & partly in Washington at first.
NOTABLE MEN IN "THE HOUSE."

A SERIES OF SKETCHES

OF

PROMINENT MEN

IN THE

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,

MEMBERS OF THE

THIRTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS.

WRITTEN AND EDITED BY

HOWARD GLYNDON.

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 John Sargent 10 copies
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INAUGURAL.

It has been said that one who is good for making excuses is good for nothing else. I do not want to make any excuse to my friends who are interested in this volume for the somewhat imperfect condition in which it is submitted to them, but simply to place some of the facts in that connection at their disposal. I have had less than a month in which to collect and elaborate materials. Anybody who knows anything of such an undertaking, knows that the collecting of information and facts for such a purpose is a formidable task, infinitely more critical than the authorship of the work. To be sure, the work was planned out some two months before I actually began it; but various delays on the part of others, and inexperience in my own case, put it back until June, when I took hold of the work in earnest—with what success, those interested must judge from the result. The work is not so extended as I intended it to be. Several very interesting articles are left out, on account of the failure to receive materials, as arranged for, before the very last moment allowed me before going to press. It has been thought necessary to have the work out in anticipation of the adjournment of Congress. I hardly dare state how short a time has been allowed me to get the work through press, lest friends should be incredulous. There are many whom I especially regret leaving out of a company to which they have every right and claim to be included; and there were others—especial favorites of mine—whom I felt I could not do without; and so, in many cases, not being able to wait for the arrival of the material I had arranged for, I have thrown off a hasty and imperfect notice. I have always preferred to draw my materials from impartial sources. More value than I could give

the work attaches to it from the fact that some of the most inviting articles were furnished by more experienced and graceful pens than my own. The sketches of Messrs. Bingham, Blake, Gurley, Goodwin, Rollins (N. H.), Shanks, and Stevens, were written by Mr. John R. French, of Ohio, formerly well known as an editor of much talent. Mr. W. A. Croffult, also an ex quill-driver, of most energetic genius, supplied me with the articles on Potter, Lovejoy, Hutchins, and Aldrich. Mr. J. J. Piatt, a young Kentucky poet of great promise, furnished Messrs. Mallory and Menzies, of his own State. Mr. C. R. Barns, of the *Detroit Tribune*, wrote for me the sketches of Messrs. Beaman, Richardson, and Law. Mr. Gilfillan, of Connecticut, "did" the Conn. men—Loomis and Burnham; and Mr. J. D. Snow, of Ill., wrote the sketches of Voorhees and Webster. Also, Mr. J. C. Lovejoy, of Cambridge, Mass., kindly furnished a sketch of S. C. Fessenden, of Maine, and Mr. Duffield, of Indiana, drew a pen-and-ink portrait of Schuyler Colfax.

If anybody is disposed to quarrel with me on account of the great diversity of political opinion manifest in the sketches, as well as the subjects of them, I have only to say that I have done all I could to make a happy family of my distinguished subjects, without any regard for political opinion. Because a man happens to be a Radical, or a Conservative, as the case may be, that fact does not detract from his notability or his reputation for talent. And, in some cases, where the friends of members have spoken for them, antagonistic political opinions crop out somewhat strongly. I have only to say that I do not hold myself responsible for these opinions any further than that I have allowed each one to speak for himself, irrespective of party, without indorsing or disclaiming the views of any. In social intercourse that liberty is allowed, and why not in a book? It has been my aim to portray all the notables of the House, as far as my limited time has allowed me, in the most favorable light, irrespective of polities. I shall not be very much concerned as to any quarrel about this seeming inconsistency, if my attempt prove readable.

HOWARD GLYNDON.

NOTABLE MEN IN THE HOUSE.

GALUSHA A. GROW,

OF PENNSYLVANIA.

(SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, 37TH CONGRESS.)

“FREEDOM for our Territories, and free lands for free men!” That is the doctrine in defence of which the invincible Speaker of the present House fleshed his maiden sword in the corrupt body of the arbitrary dogma of the Southern autocrats. With these words on his lip, and in his heart, and shaping his congressional career, he has made his way up to his present position.

He was born in Eastford, Windham Co., Conn., August 31st, 1823. But we hear of him not long afterwards as one of a family of six children, living with a widowed mother, in Susquehanna Co., Penn., at a most romantic place called Glenwood, situated in a wild, mountainous region, on a tributary of the Susquehanna. Doubtless Galusha A. Grow often looks back to the wild, healthy life that he led in those days, when his thoughts, and purposes, and pursuits had not the slightest legislative flavor—when he rafted lumber down the Susquehanna on the spring freshets, and angled in its bright waters, and hunted other game than that which now gives employment to his Nimrod-like propensities in “the House.” He went to the district school, winters, but he was a healthy boy, with no prematurely and harmfully developed intellectualities; and I fancy it is very probable that he preferred the outside to the inside of the schoolhouse. But by-and-by, at the right time, that very valuable (in an intellectual sense) head of his came into play. He went to Amherst College, Penn., and pitched right fiercely, and without the least veneration, into *all* the terrible books that go to make up a collegiate course, and “came up to the scratch” in fine style—that is, he graduated just as a man predestined to such a career as his ought to graduate, in July, 1844. Scarcely stopping to take breath, his next onslaught was upon the musty folios

of a law office. It did not take him long to demolish Blackstone, and he was admitted to the bar in August, 1847. But though Atlas bore his burden manfully, it is probable that he felt sore in the shoulders. Nature will not let you take a young scion of humanity, reared up in all the unbridled freedom of the steed of the desert, and shut him up where his head does double duty, and his young, growing limbs are cramped for want of exercise, without protesting loudly against the outrage. In Mr. Grow's case the protest took the form of a dyspeptic attack, which obliged him to yield obedience to a "higher law" than that branch of jurisprudence which he was then practicing—it drove him from his books and briefs to more primitive pursuits, such as bark-peeling and land-surveying ; and he receives a gentle hint on this subject so often that he is obliged to prosecute these open-air pursuits during the congressional vacations. Notwithstanding this drawback, he made such progress in political life as enabled him to take his seat in Congress for the first time in 1850.

Speaker Grow is a fortunate and a popular man. The stars smile on him, and so do the ladies, for he is a "nice-looking" man, about five feet eleven inches in height, bright dark eyes, black hair, and handsome facial appendages, might weigh about 160 pounds, and in personal appearance is a perpetual reproach to certain other slouchy bachelor members of the House, who seem to think that well-gotten-up linen and neat foot-leather are nuisances. Why he still remaineth without a *double* is a mystery to the present writer, who calls upon his lady friends to investigate the matter. We repeat, however, that he is a fortunate and a popular man. He has been elected to Congress six times ; and the following figures place his popularity beyond a doubt :

Elected to his first term by a majority of	1,253
" " second term "	7,567
" " third term, without opposition.	
" " fourth term, majority of	7,974
" " fifth term, "	8,808
" " sixth term, "	8,938

"There's figgers" for you ! He was elected Speaker of the Thirty-seventh Congress, July 4th, 1861. He was chairman of the Committee on Territories in the Thirty-fourth and Thirty-sixth Congresses. During his occupation of the position, Kansas was admitted as a State, and the Territories of Dakotah, Colorado, and Nevada were organized. He has made but one speech this session, and that a highly effectual one on the Homestead Bill.

THADDEUS STEVENS.

THADDEUS STEVENS is the very Jupiter Tonans of the House, and wo to the unhappy member upon whose head falls his thunderous blows ! Open rebels, half-sympathizers, craven apologists, cowardly men who hesitate in the abolition of the grand cause of the rebellion —and especially men of his own party kith and kin who falter in their acceptance of the stern duties of the hour—these all are made to feel the scathing force of his terrible but glorious invective.

Thaddeus Stevens is one of the captains of the earth—born such—and holds his commission by divine right. God made him for a leader and a commander ; and Speaker Grow, when he designated him as the leader of the present House by placing him at the head of the Committee on Ways and Means, but recognized this previous and irrevocable appointment. Thaddeus Stevens has a rough side, as have all great men. Mean men, the trimmers and shirkers, the wrong-doers, and their poltroon apologizers who would “wrap it up” and hide the wrong away from sight, all think him as rough as a chestnut-bur ; but his friends know that he has a warm and genial inside. No soul beats higher in admiration for all that is gallant and chivalric ; no human heart is warmer in its sympathies, or kindlier or more generous in its charities ; and no arm strikes braver blows for the Right. “God bless old THAD. STEVENS ! and keep him alive and hearty these hundred years ! ” is the prayer of every true man who knows him.

Mr. Stevens is a native of Vermont ; his age we know not, but should say that he was a well-preserved specimen of about 65 years. He has long been the controlling spirit of all that section of Pennsylvania which makes its head-quarters at the beautiful borough of Lancaster, though Jimmie Buchanan himself lives right there. In stature he is tall, full six feet, erect and of medium physical development, a fine head and face, the latter thoroughly shaven and every muscle instinct with sentiment, complexion florid, with a large blue eye, swimming with thought and humanity. By profession, Mr. Stevens is a lawyer, and takes the front rank here, of course, as he does everywhere.

COLONEL JOHN S. PHELPS,

OF MISSOURI,

one of the most prominent and efficient of the loyal men in Missouri during the present war, and closely identified with the more immediate interests of the southwestern part of the State.

Colonel Phelps was born at Simsbury, Conn., in 1814, his father being the Hon. Elisha Phelps. Colonel Phelps' stainless loyalty is an ancestral inheritance, his grandfather, Noah Phelps, having been a colonel in the Revolutionary War. He was an only son, and of course most peculiarly beloved by his father, mother, and two sisters. At the early age of seventeen he graduated at Washington College, Hartford. He then read law in his father's office, and was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-one—opened an office in Hartford, where he remained two years. We are told that from a very early age he had a strong desire to go West. This desire was increased when he beheld his young associates, one after the other, leave their early homes, some going South, some West. Many of his favorite classmates were from the South, and this no doubt had an influence over the peculiar bent of his opinions in after days. He also grew up in the nurture and teachings of the old Democratic school. And so, when he came to take a part in political affairs in Missouri, we find Colonel Phelps ever the most loyal and devoted of men in his adherence to the Union cause, but with his face ever steadily set against the extreme proceedings of the more enthusiastic and impulsive of Northern reformers. It is related of him that when quite young—only sixteen, in fact—he was selected by his fellow townsmen to reply to and refute the arguments of an abolition lecturer who had been invited to hold forth to the good people of Simsbury; and his friends maintain that he did this so effectually that his lecture "was a death-blow to the cause of unconditional abolitionism in the town of Simsbury for all time to come." This incident shows the unusual promise that his early years gave, which the record of later years has fully realized, and also the strong bent of his mind, even then, towards the faith which he has never relinquished.

We shall now let the narrative go on in the graphic language of a life-long friend of our subject.

"His parents would not consent to his emigrating West until he was married, which took place in April, 1837. He then took up his

line of march westward, and after visiting St. Louis, Boonville, and some other places, he took up his abode in Springfield, in the southwest part of the State of Missouri. Springfield was then a very small place, containing six or eight log cabins, a log court-house, jail, &c.; but it was the county town of Green county, then as large as the State of Connecticut, and the fires of the Indians had hardly gone out. Court was in session at Springfield in the hot month of July, when one day Mr. Phelps and his wife were driven into the town in a four-horse wagon which had been hired in Boonville. A live Yankee in those parts was quite a curiosity to the backwoods-men—and Mr. Phelps was especially a curiosity, he looked so young and pale, so apparently unfit for the rough life of the West. One great, coarse, black-whiskered man, with two pistols and a large bowie-knife belted outside of his deer-skin hunting-shirt, after surveying Colonel Phelps closely, gave him the name of "the green Yankee boy," which he went by for some time. The lawyers and the Judge who were in attendance at court soon drew around him and tried to make him welcome; but that was a day of trials to the young emigrant, everything was so strange and new.

"We have omitted to state that while at Boonville, he had taken the precaution to go to Jefferson City, the capital of the State, and procure a license to practice law in the State. From Boonville to Jefferson City is a distance of forty miles. All travel was at that time performed on horseback or in wagons. Mr. Phelps started early in the morning, thinking he could make the journey in one day. Not being accustomed to riding on horseback, he could not ride very fast, and night overtook him some miles from Jefferson City. The last cabin he had passed was ten miles behind—he could see none ahead; he rode on, thinking he would have to spend the night in the woods, without shelter or food. It was cloudy, and the last ray of day had disappeared, when at a distance to the right of the road he saw a light. He made his way towards it as fast as his tired horse could move. The light came from a very small cabin in the woods. There were strange stories floating around, about robbers and cut-throats in those lonely hills, but our hero, nothing daunted, called out, "Hallo!" at the top of his voice. A man came to the door, followed by his wife and six children, dirty, ragged, and uncombed.

"'Can I stay here all night?' says Mr. P.

"'I recon,' responded a gruff voice.

"'I want to stay all night,' repeated Mr. P.

"The answer was, 'I recon,' which shibboleth was as Hebrew to the stranger.

" 'But,' said Mr. P., getting off of his horse, 'I must have a place in your cabin to-night.'

" 'I recon,' still standing in the door.

" Mr. P. walked into the cabin.

" 'Well, *I recon*,' said the owner of the cabin, 'you'll not leave your nag to eat fence-rails, will you? I doesn't put up men's nags. That you'll do yourself.'

" 'Yes,' said Mr. P., 'after I rest a little.'

" They soon got into conversation, when Mr. P. asked the man what he meant by saying 'I recon' so often. The man laughed out loudly, and his wife and children joined in.

" 'Well, sirree, I believe you are a real live Yankee! I never seed one before.'

" And they all took a good look at him before lying down on the floor to sleep. They had but one bed, and that belonged to the old woman and her twin babies. Mr. Phelps went supperless to sleep, and in the morning breakfasted off of 'corn dodger' and fat bacon. About noon that day he reached Jefferson City, and found Judge Tompkins, who gave the licenses, some miles from home at a mill. Mr. Phelps told him his business. Said the Judge, 'You are a Yankee, I perceive. Where were you educated?' After being informed, he replied, 'It will not do for me to ask you many questions about law, for I have found that these Yankee lawyers know more than we Western judges do.'

" But, to return. A few days after Mr. P. reached Springfield, one of the lawyers, a resident of Springfield, shot an old man down in the street. Robarts, the old man, was very troublesome; he had threatened several times to kill the lawyer, and generally carried a very large knife in his bosom. All the bar volunteered to defend their brother lawyer, and Mr. Phelps among the rest. Not a lawyer at that bar could be found who would prosecute, except the prosecuting attorney. The friends of the deceased man said that the attorney must have help. The case was continued until another court, when an old man, who had been judge of that circuit some years before, and was considered a very smart man, was employed to prosecute. He had been acquainted with all the lawyers of that district, and their practice, while he was judge, excepting Mr. Phelps. His name was Allen, and he had been called, for many years, *Horse* Allen. The trial came on. Mr. Phelps and Allen were to have the closing speeches. For three days and nights Mr. Phelps had not slept, and had eaten but little. It was his first important speech. The court

room was crowded. The lawyers all made their speeches. Allen made his speech for the prosecution. Mr. Phelps then rose. He was tall and thin, and had hardly recovered from the disease of the county—fever and ague. When the crowd looked upon him, the whisper of derision went round the room. He is but a boy! A big boy!—the old men said. He commenced his speech in a clear, manly voice. His limbs trembled a little at first until he forgot himself. He did not appeal to the passions and sympathies of the court or jury, but he cited and explained THE LAW. There was a deathly stillness, and every eye was turned towards the speaker for three hours. He closed; the jury went out, but returned in ten minutes with the glad words “Not guilty!” A shout was raised—“Three cheers for the young Yankee.” Allen’s friends gathered around him, and questioned him—“Well, Horse, why didn’t you do better?” His answer was: “I took a good look at the green Yankee, and I thought if he was to be my opponent, I would not trouble myself. But I tell you, boys, old as I am, that little Yankee has got more law in his head than all of us put together.” From this time, Mr. Phelps’ reputation as a lawyer, steadily increased. Business flowed in upon him like the water down the Missouri River. In 1840 the people called him to serve in the Legislature. A great many new counties were made by that Legislature, and Mr. Phelps was called “The new county man.” He did not like the idea of giving up his practice, so he returned to the law. For nine years he practiced law, and in that time he defended nine cases for murder, and every one successfully. In 1844, the people of Missouri (for then the whole people in mass voted for members to Congress) elected him to a seat in Congress, which he has been re-elected to, until the present time. He is now the oldest member in the lower House. His energy and industry have had no equal in or out of Congress. At an early day he introduced a bill (and carried it through) for a railroad, commencing at St. Louis, and passing through the most fertile portions of Missouri, to the border of the State. A grant of land was given by Government to build this road. He also advocated carrying this road to the Pacific Ocean, through New Mexico. The Legislature of New Mexico invited Mr. Phelps to visit them in this connection, which he did, in ’58; and in returning, he shortened the then mail route to Santa Fe, 75 miles. It was owing to Mr. Phelps’ industry and energy, that the overland mail to California was carried through southwest Missouri and a portion of Arkansas, for more than two years.

“When the present rebellion commenced, he raised his voice against

it, and especially in Missouri; and when he found it could not be settled without a war, he was one of the first to arm against a violation of the Constitution. Not being able to return to his home in the southwest, after the battle at Wilson's Creek, he remained in camp at Rolla, and made up a regiment of his neighbors and friends who were driven from their homes by the rebels. He lay in camp until February, when his regiment, with the troops under Gen. Curtis, was ordered to Springfield to drive the rebels from his home, which they had despoiled. On reaching Springfield, they found that the enemy had fled, but on they went, skirmishing all the way with the enemy until the army reached Cross Hollows, in Arkansas. The battle at Pea Ridge will never be forgotten by us. Col. Phelps made a brave stand with his little handful of men, 295 in number, the most of his regiment having been detailed along the road to hold posts; some were sick, so there were only a few who had the pleasure of following their brave commander to the battle-field. But every man was brave and did his duty. Col. Phelps escaped unhurt, but his horse received seven balls and fell under him.

"Col. Phelps, on leaving the battle-field where he had so nobly acquitted himself, to take his seat in the House, at once, with his characteristic vigor, threw himself into the hottest of the political fight, with only the welfare of his State and the country in his mind. His influence was felt in the House on the first day of his reappearance; and for the honor and safety of Missouri, long may she have the help of his good right arm and his outspoken manliness in the halls of Congress!"

"What loyal man but heard with a thrill of thankfulness and admiration, of the noble conduct of the heroic wife of the subject of this sketch, when she so bravely guarded all that was left of our dead Lyon—too early lost, alas!—keeping watch over the body of the hero at her home near Springfield.

"Then, too, we hear of the bravery of his young son, who fought with his father at the battle of Pea Ridge. A pleasanter task has seldom devolved on us than this, of paying a respectful tribute to so much worth, bravery, and loyalty."

JOHN F. POTTER.

YONDER stands a group of members, gathered around the chair of one of the very strongest men in this XXXVIIth Congress—with out a notice of whom this book of notable men would be absurdly incomplete. He is full of emotion now ; and his firm knot of a fist crashes upon the desk before him, and his keen gray eyes flash like lightning, as he hurls penalties at the culprits of the South, or ridicules the folly of bribing secessionists to be outwardly loyal by keeping them in fat offices, or calls vehemently for hemp to hang the traitors who slink into the seats around him. It is a picture that would rejoice the soul of a painter ; the attentive attitudes of the listeners, and the central figure, alert and manly, inclined to robustness,—the resolute face, with its high brow, Roman nose, and dark unshaven whiskers, daintily fringed with silver, and the large erect head, crowned with a light crop of iron-gray hair, beneath which Observation, Benevolence, Firmness, Hope, Combativeness, and Conscience, are conspicuous. He has no reverence for moss-grown error, and

“The out-worn rite, the old abuse,
The pious fraud, transparent grown,”

find nor more favor in his eyes than if they were more youthful. A phrenologist would mark on his chart, “Secretiveness 3—small” ; which accounts for his utter candor and ingenuousness. He says just what he means. He may be called a traitor by rebels, an infidel by pious tyrants, an incendiary by fogies, and a fanatic by fools ; but he will never be called *ambiguous* by anybody. His backbone is utterly inflexible—metaphorically and anatomically tough ; rendering him proof against rough usage and hard weather, not only, but against the oily gammon of the demagogue—an animal which he loves to face, and

“Brand his treacherous flatteries without winking.”

He has backbone enough for half-a-dozen Congresses. He scorns the Sir Nicholas Mac Sycophants. He despises dough-faces ; and when Beecher tearfully insists that they are “not fit to die,” Potter as stoutly protests that they are not fit to live.

John Fox Potter is of good stock. His grandfather was the first settled clergyman at Lebanon, N. H., and held the trying office of chaplain in the Revolutionary army. His father, John Potter by

name, emigrated in the early part of the present century to Augusta, Me., where he adopted the legal profession, and practiced it successfully for many years, and still resides. The subject of the present sketch was born, about forty-five years ago, in the latter city. He enjoyed limited educational facilities at Phillips' Academy, Exeter, N. H., but his enterprise and independent spirit carried him to the "far West." At the very first sale of government lands, he purchased a farm near Milwaukee, which for twenty-five years he has occupied, and which he still cultivates in the intervals of his public life. Here he was a close student, and, at an early day, was admitted to the bar. His accurate legal knowledge, his warm sympathy with the plain working-people, and his remarkable self-assertion, rendering him spirited in the championship of his opinions, and magnetic in his influence upon all to whom he spoke, made him immensely popular, and gave him place as a leader. From the bar to the bench was an easy step. He was appointed Probate Judge in 1839, holding the office for ten consecutive years, and was afterwards re-chosen when it became elective. He was a member of the State Legislature, from '52 to '56, and was one of that choice company (they could be counted on the fingers of one's hand) who ran the gauntlet of "The Forty Thieves," exposing their rascality in the face of threats and bribes, and came out uncorrupted and incorruptible. His services in that body have passed into the history of Wisconsin. In '56, while in the Senate, he was nominated for Congress by the republicans of his district—which usually gave one or two thousand democratic majority—and, after a heated canvass, was elected over Jackson Hadley, by three hundred majority. In '58 he was renominated by acclamation, and beat Beriah Brown by three thousand three hundred majority! Ditto in '60, and was elected to the present Congress by the round majority of three thousand.

His public life has been very eventful, and has been followed by the eyes of the nation and the world with an interest which scarcely any other American has attracted. Positive in his opinions, almost romantic in his ardent hatred of slavery, brave to a fault, his career has been brimming full of that flavor and piquancy of full-grown manliness, which seems to have been stolen from the chivalric ages. He has been, if not the most hated, at least the most feared man, whom the insolent and arrogant Southrons have met—the knight-errant of three Congresses; and the "ladie faire," for whose honor his sturdy lance is always tilted, is Freedom, prostrate and shackled in the Council Halls of the Republic.

In the summer of '57, his first session, he became unintentionally conspicuous. It was two o'clock one morning; the South were testing the endurance of Northern men to "sit out" the Crittenden-Montgomery Compromise, when Potter looked up on hearing a singular noise, to see Keitt—boon companion of Bully Brooks—make a ruffianly assault upon Mr. Grow, of Pa., as he was passing down the aisle, seizing him by the throat and endeavoring to strangle him. A sharp memory of Keitt in the assault on Sumner seems to have flashed down the dexter nerves and into the "bunch of fives" of the "member from Wisconsin," for he bounded straight across the Hall, over desks, chairs, and members, and before Mr. Speaker Orr could see what was the matter, the bully lay on the marble floor, having come in contact with Grow's brawny fist, and Potter stood beside the latter to defend him against the host who now rushed to the aid of their discomfited champion. Judge Potter was instantly assailed by the whole body, as if they had concerted to kill him. He shook them off, and "with his face to the foe," retreated slowly down the broad aisle, towards the central area. He did not want to fight, but they were fiercely resolved that he should. They rushed upon him like infuriated beasts, and he received them as they came. He knocked Davis down with a well-put blow between the eyes. And Barksdale. Keitt likewise. And others not enumerated. Then the Northern side came to the rescue, and the fight became general. The rest is known. How Barksdale lost his wig with his temper; how his face and head were gnarled and knotted for a week, and how Davis looked at the distance of a rod, as if he wore badly-constructed goggles, and explained it by saying that he "fell down stairs"—is recorded in the newspapers of that era. The attack on Grow was utterly unprovoked—without even a sane pretext—and it encountered the right stuff in Potter, for that day freedom of locomotion was vindicated, and henceforth conceded in that Hall. "*Wasn't it disgraceful?*" Of course it was, most respectable Sir or Madam, but the disgrace was in the assault, while the defence was admirable and honorable.

In '59, during the eruption of the bad blood of the South, Pryor assailed Mr. Lovejoy while making an anti-slavery speech upon the floor of the House, and rushing towards him, shook his fist at him, and shouted vehemently that "That speech shall not be made in this House!" At this repeated menace, Mr. Potter sprung to the side of the gallant Illinoisian, and answered back the insolent ruffian, "That speech **SHALL** be made in this House!" It were needless to add that the speech was concluded. Irritated and mortified by an accurate

publication of Mr. Potter's defiant replies to his bullying, Prior shook his ambrosial locks, and in a moment of presumption, penned a challenge. Potter received it calmly, and reflected what to do. He is not a fighter, he remembers, but in spirit and in life a man of peace. "I have known Judge Potter to go out of the way to avoid a collision," writes a neighbor of his from Wisconsin. Now he is challenged. It is not necessary that he fight to prove his courage, for the whole country knows already that he is afraid of nothing so much as an unjust action. Shall he go in, *pugnis et calcibus*, and make himself the target of a professional duelist?—or shall he reply that *he* is not a duelist; that Northern laws forbid it; that he "will defend himself if attacked"? The former is not agreeable; the latter plea has been offered too often already, he thinks; for, however fair or righteous it be, the fevered South always translates it as "Northern Cowardice." He reasoned thus:—"For years these Quattlebums have called us poltroons and taunted us with lack of manhood, because, in fidelity to conscience and in deference to Northern law and opinion, we will not accept their barbarous customs. They are savages; we cannot correct their dangerous mistake with sermons, or protests, or quoting the Ten Commandments. They are below these. Besides, Freedom of Speech is involved in this matter; let me defend it in the only way they comprehend." Yes!—his mind is made up; not for himself alone, but for the bullied, buffeted, outraged North he will take up the gauntlet. Yes; to silence Southern insults and to stimulate Northern courage, he will fight the braggart;—not with pistols, by which unskilled Honesty is slain by artful Villany—as outside of San Francisco, where Broderick fell; but "with bowie-knives at one pace,"—eye to eye and hand to hand! The custom is barbarous, he said, so let its weapons be; besides, the bowie has no hair-trigger. He made his will—so Rumor runs—and Mrs. Potter received it as any loving wife might from any husband in peril, but regaining her composure, told him that with the sacred purpose of inspiring non-resistant Freedom with courage to take up the bloody gauntlet of Slavery which would soon be hurled, his act of devotion *was right!*

The rest is known;—how Pryor begged the police to hold him, and skulked out of sight of the man whom he had thus wantonly insulted; how the miscreants of the South kept their challenges in their pockets; and how the facile North, thenceforward, stood up erect. Judge Potter had nothing to gain by staking his life; his reputation for courage was safe; he abhorred the possibility of a blood-stain

on his hand ; he was shaken with emotion at the chance of being snatched from a family that needed him ; but the sluggish heart of the Republic must be strengthened for the impending crisis, and he calmly took his life in his hand, and held it, with a heroism as rare as it is sublime, above her altar. "And," said a leading Senator to this writer, on the Capitol steps, recently, "from that hour Northern resistance was made possible, and the Nation's blood is purer, and the Nation's war heartier this very day, because of that act!"

In matters of direct Legislation also, Judge Potter is one of the most industrious and efficient members. To him is due much credit for the passage of Aldrich's Homestead Bill. His terrible Investigating Committee, which has made such wholesome havoc among disloyal clerks, will be a large part of the history of these times. His integrity has never been contested. His titular prefix of "Hon." means Honest. This writer knows not whether he patronizes any religious denomination—nor cares—for

"O'er thumb-worn creeds let senseless bigots fight ;
He can't be wrong whose life is in the right ! "

He rarely makes an elaborate speech, but he *can* do it, and what he says is always straight to the point. He hates circumlocution. Choate would have haunted him like the ghost of some infernal lexicon. He delights in the short-cuts of intuitive logic ; believes in instinct, and the inspiration of soul, hence his language is always sententious and aphoristic ; compact, direct, terse—a speech in a clause.

Perhaps Judge Potter's specialty is his marvelous power of Execution. He draws men about him, and stamps himself upon every one he touches. If he were wrecked with ten thousand Yankee strangers upon some desolate island in the Pacific, he would be elected, by general assent, in an hour, President of the New Republic, and would have a Provisional Government organized before sundown. Such, to one who has seen him often, and in hours of trial, is John F. Potter—almost a Quaker in principle, but a lion when aroused to the defence of a great Cause ; his life threatened a score of times in every Congress, but still retained ;—one of the most fearless, feared, admired, abused, esteemed public men in America.

WILLIAM A. RICHARDSON,

OF ILLINOIS.

FEW members, perhaps, of the present House of Representatives, are better entitled to a place among the "notables" than the gentleman whose life and character it is now our task briefly to portray, whether we take into consideration the length of time he has spent in public life and the leading part he has borne therein for many years past, or those peculiar talents and traits of individual character the possession of which alone, even though unconnected with public services, would be amply sufficient to mark him as far more than an ordinary or common-place man.

Mr. Richardson is now a little over fifty-one years of age, having been born on the 16th of January, in Fayette County, Kentucky. His parents, though not rich, were in comfortable circumstances. After acquiring a thorough knowledge of the common branches of education, he entered the school of the Rev. R. Stewart, at Walnut Hill, Ky., where he prepared for college. Among his classmates here, was the Hon. George W. Dunlap, now a representative from Kentucky. Leaving this school, he entered Centre College, at Danville, Ky., which institution he shortly abandoned, however, for Transylvania College, where he completed his education. Among his fellow-students, at the latter place, were Hon. Montgomery Blair, now Postmaster-General, and Cassius M. Clay, late Minister to Russia, and now a Brigadier-General in the Union Army.

Leaving college, young Richardson applied himself to the study of the law, at Winchester, Ky.; and with such diligence did he pursue his studies that, before reaching his twentieth year, he was admitted to practice at the bar of his native State. Shortly after this, (April, 1831,) he emigrated to Illinois. In 1834, he was elected an attorney for the State, Stephen A. Douglas being chosen Attorney-General at the same time. It was during the canvass preceding this election that an intimacy sprang up between Mr. Richardson and the great Illinois statesman, which soon ripened into a permanent and enduring friendship—a friendship which was never for a moment interrupted so long as Douglas lived. From that day, the "Little Giant" and the subject of our sketch stood side by side, battling with equal zeal, if not with equal ability, for the advancement of the same ends and the

success of the same principles ; and the latter gloried in nothing more than in being called Stephen A. Douglas' "right-hand man."

Mr. Richardson was now fairly embarked in public life ; and since then, he has been the recipient of many tokens of honor and confidence from the people of his State and the National Executive. He was several times elected a member of the Illinois Legislature, and, in 1844, was complimented with the Speakership of the State House of Representatives—serving the same year as one of the Electors for President and Vice-President. On the breaking out of the Mexican war, he went as a captain in the First Illinois Regiment. In the battle of Buena Vista he bore a conspicuous part, and for his gallant behavior he was, the day after the battle, honored with an unanimous election as one of the field-officers of the regiment. As he was but the fifth captain in rank, Mr. Richardson has always regarded this as one of the proudest compliments he ever received.

Mr. Richardson was first elected to Congress in 1847, and has been five times re-elected. In 1856 he was the democratic candidate for Governor of Illinois ; but, although the electoral vote of the State was given to Buchanan, he was defeated by a majority of four thousand votes in a total poll of 230,000. In 1858 he was appointed Governor of Nebraska. He shortly resigned, however, and returned to Illinois, from which State he was, in 1860, returned to Congress for his present term. Appreciating his natural military talent, President Lincoln recently tendered him the appointment of brigadier-general of volunteers, which honor, however, he declined.

Mr. Richardson is a bold thorough-going democratic partisan ; and, in the ability and vigor with which he advocates and defends his principles, he is surpassed by no member of his party, in or out of Congress. He is a ready debater, full of humor and anecdote, and knows how to give and take some pretty hard knocks. His delivery is animated, and his speeches in Congress are generally listened to with attention, although his style of argument is much better adapted to the "stump" than to the halls of legislation, and it is on the former that his greatest triumphs have been gained. He lays down his propositions boldly and clearly.

In person he is rather above the medium height, large and strongly built, weighing perhaps one hundred and eighty or two hundred pounds, with a large head, dark complexion, and strongly marked and impressive features. He pays but little regard to the niceties of the toilet, and his general appearance and demeanor is such, that he passes for what is commonly termed a "rather rough customer." In social

intercourse he is frank and cordial, open-hearted and generous; true to his friends, whom he is always ready to serve, and a general favorite with all "good fellows." He has, we believe, been engaged in two "affairs of honor," in both of which he wounded, without killing, his antagonist, escaping unhurt himself.

Among the plain homespun people of the West, few men are more popular than Mr. Richardson; and, should the principles which he represents regain their ascendancy, it is not to be doubted that he will, if spared, be the recipient of even higher marks of their love and confidence than heretofore..

ALFRED ELY.

ON SEEING AN ENGRAVING OF HIM.

There is a spirit in that small slight frame
Which long captivity could never cewe;
And the eye pent beneath that hanging brow,
Would never blench before the bared steel,
Nor shrink from Fate, no matter how it came.
Prisoner of Richmond! Lo, before us now,
Thou bearest ever an untroubled face;
But there are lines in which my sense can trace
The hand of anguish! In those heavy hours,
Shut far away from any friendly face,
From love, and home, and wifely fond embrace,
How didst thou suffer! In those long, long days,
And, sadder yet, those terrible still nights.
Smooth years of peace can never do away
The traces of those pangs that turned the spirit gray!

HARRISON G. BLAKE.

MR. BLAKE represents one of the northern districts of the queenly State of Ohio, and a district honorably mentioned for the general intelligence of its people. He is a dark-haired, "snug-built," active, and determined man, in the prime of his years—born in the year 1818, in the State of Vermont—a good State to be born in. He was early taken to Washington County, New York, and again, when but

twelve years of age, with the family moved to Medina County, Ohio, his present home. Like most Buckeye boys, until eighteen years of age, young Blake worked on a farm, then entered a store as a clerk; but, improving his leisure hours with diligent study of the law, he in a few years passed a creditable examination, and was admitted to the bar. In 1846 he represented his county in the State Legislature, and again in 1847. In 1848 he was elected as Senator from the district composed of the counties of Medina and Lorain, and by that body was honored with the election to the Speakership. In 1859, Mr. Blake was elected to the Thirty-sixth Congress, and re-elected in 1861. He made a good speech on the District Emancipation Bill, which he heartily supported, and also a very admirable one in support of the Post Office Order Bill, which he reported from the Post Office Committee, of which he is a diligent and valuable member. Harrison G. Blake is another name to be added to that long and worthy list of American young men, who, all unaided, save by their own untiring diligence and unconquered will, have won the high places of usefulness and honor.

ELIHU B. WASHBURN.

He is serving his fifth term in Congress, having been elected in 1852. There are but two members of the present House who have served longer than he—Mr. Phelps, of Missouri, and Mr. Speaker Grow. Mr. Phelps being absent at the organization of the House, it devolved upon Mr. Washburne to swear in the Speaker, he being the member longest in service. His majority over his opponent at his first election, in 1852, was three hundred, and at his last election, in 1860, it was twelve thousand five hundred and eleven. The Galena District, which he represents, is the strongest Republican district in the United States. He was born in Livermore, Oxford (now Androscoggin) county, Maine, and is the son of Israel Washburne, Esq., who is still living. He is one of the three brothers who served together in the House for many years. Israel, Jr., the present Governor of Maine, served from the Thirty-second to the Thirty-sixth Congress, ten years. Cadwallader C., of Wisconsin (now Brigadier-General in the Volunteer service, U. S. A.), served from the Thirty-fourth to the Thirty-sixth Congress, six years; and Mr. Washburne, of Illinois,

entered the Thirty-third Congress, and at the end of the present (the Thirty-seventh) Congress will have served ten years. Another brother, Charles A. Washburne, is the present Minister Resident to Paraguay, South America. Another, William D. Washburne, is present Surveyor-General of the State of Minnesota. Another, Samuel B. Washburne, is an Acting Master in the Naval service, and greatly distinguished himself on board the iron-clad gunboat "Galena," at the attack on Fort Darling, James River.

JOHN NOBLE GOODWIN.

If, good reader, you were now by my side, looking down from the gallery of the House upon the assembled representatives of the people, and I were to ask you to point me out the handsomest man of the body, I dare say you would point me to the young gentleman who represents the First Congressional District of Maine. If you are a woman I know you would. Mr. Goodwin is "fair and fat," though not quite "forty," being one of the youngest men of the House; rejoicing in just rotundity enough to give complete development to his fine figure, and tell of that generous nature which takes the world kindly, and manfully accepting all its duties as they come along day by day, lies down at night to pleasant dreams and refreshing slumber. Not only has Mr. Goodwin grasped Congressional honors at an unusually early period of life, but he comes from the District in which he was born, and where he has always lived—a testimonial to one's life and character that few men have secured.

Mr. Goodwin was born in South Berwick, Me., October 18, 1824, and this South Berwick is one of the loveliest villages of New England. He fitted for college at Berwick Academy, and entered Dartmouth in 1840, from whose venerable and honored halls he graduated in 1844. He studied law in the office of John Hubbard, and entered upon its practice, in his native village, in 1849, and at once commanded an enviable professional position.

In 1854, Mr. Goodwin was elected to the Senate of Maine; in 1855 was appointed Commissioner to revise the Special Laws of that State; and in 1860, by a flattering majority, was elected to Congress from the First Congressional District, a District of large political and commercial importance, containing within its bounds the thriving manufacturing cities of Saco and Biddeford, with Portland, the com-

mercial metropolis of the State, and for these four years past the most thrifty of New England cities.

Mr. Goodwin is serving his first Congressional term, but undoubtedly it will prove the opening of a long and honorable public career. The same urbanity of manners and integrity of purpose which have given him such unusual strength and confidence at home, will command respect and influence in the national councils—indeed, we should say have already done it. No representative stands better with his fellow-members; not much given to speech-making, but always in his place, and straightforward and decided in his action, while ever courteous to his opponents. On the great issues of the day, John N. Goodwin is true to the teachings of his New England ancestry; and for the putting down of the present unhallowed rebellion always votes for the most vigorous measures.

GEORGE P. FISHER,

OF DELAWARE,

is the son of General Thomas Fisher, whose ancestors emigrated to this country with William Penn. He was born in Milford, Kent County, Delaware, October 13, 1817. He received his collegiate education partly at St. Mary's College, Baltimore, and partly at Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., where he graduated in 1838. He studied law with Hon. John M. Clayton, at Dover, Del., and was admitted to the bar in 1841, and here he commenced the practice of law. The record of Mr. Fisher's public life shows great industry and an unusual talent for public affairs on his part, and also bears ample testimony of the great confidence reposed in his capacity by the public and those high in office. His life has been more than usually useful, honorable, and prosperous. He was elected clerk of the Senate in the same year that he was admitted to the bar, and re-elected to that office in 1843. In 1845 he was elected a member of the House of Representatives of Delaware, after which he was appointed Secretary of State, which office he held under two Governors. In 1848 he left the State of Delaware to reside in Baltimore, where he commenced the practice of law with a fine prospect of success; but in 1849, at the urgent solicitation of his life-long friend and law preceptor, Mr. Clayton, who was then Secretary of State under General Taylor, he accepted for a short

period a position as confidential clerk in the State Department at Washington; and during this period he met on the most cordial terms all the leading men of that day. President Taylor, very shortly before his death, appointed Mr. Fisher a commissioner to adjust the claims of citizens of the United States against the government of Brazil. In 1852, having closed the business of his commission, he returned to Delaware, and again took an active part in the politics of his State, acting with what was then known as the Whig party, now forming part of the Union party. In 1855 Governor P. F. Causey appointed Mr. Fisher Attorney-General of the State of Delaware, which office he filled for five years, and with such rare excellence that on the expiration of his term of office the People's party immediately, with great unanimity, nominated him as their candidate for Representative in Congress, and he was elected conjointly by that party composed of the Republican and Constitutional Union parties by a triumphant majority, in the face of the fact that the Democratic party was then largely in the ascendant. Mr. Fisher's course since the commencement of the present troubles has been a noble and patriotic one. All the influence which years of faithful service have given him with the people of Delaware has been used to strengthen the Union cause in that State. In the House of Representatives of the United States, and in the Legislature of Delaware, his voice, his influence, his efforts, and his votes have ever been heard and felt on the side of right and loyalty against treason. At no time has he hesitated to risk his own personal interests for the welfare of the country. He was the first man who in his fearless loyalty dared to stand up and say a word to the people of Delaware from his seat in the Legislative Hall against countenancing in any way the disloyal advances of the rebel commissioners sent thither by the State of Mississippi; and it was mainly through his earnest activity that the State of Delaware—to her honor forever be it recorded—furnished double the number of troops required of that gallant little State by the Presidential proclamation.

CYRUS ALDRICH.

YONDER, in one of the front seats near the central aisle, sits a man who strikes you as being different from the common mass,—the *hoi polloi* of the earth. He seems like an alert, ambitious machine, as he sits there now; his weather-beaten face of fifty hovering close to his encumbered desk, his swarthy right hand flashing a quill over the

smooth sheets, and his ready left sliding them upon the finished pile, as letter after letter rustles into existence. He has a large face, somewhat furrowed and battered by the buffettings of a rough life; nose and upper lip indicating resolution and good fighting qualities; deep, hazel eyes, over which a coarse brow is firmly knotted; a receding forehead, with conspicuous Observation, Order, Hope, Benevolence, and Mirth. The back of his head is not visible to this observer, but there must be nestling among its nether locks a huge organ of Vitality, or he would have been dead eighteen months ago. He lifts his eyes now and then to see what is going on, and resumes his work. He seldom makes a speech; but never misses a vote.

It is Cyrus Aldrich, from Minnesota. He may have enjoyed the imaginary command of an imaginary militia regiment some time somewhere, for the prefatory handle of "Col." seems to have become riveted to his name. He was born, tradition saith, in the town of Smithfield, R. I., during the historic year of 1812; but he is a thorough Westerner, having moved to Illinois in '37, and lived west of the Lakes this last half of his life. He had no advantages in youth, and has never had any save what he has wrench'd violently from hostile circumstances. He was for years a sailor before the mast, then a boatman on the Eastern canals. He was subsequently engaged on the public works in Illinois, first as a day-laborer, and, showing enterprise and honesty, afterwards as foreman and contractor. His rough-handed sincerity, and his hearty sympathy with the working-classes, made him popular, and in '44, when he had been but two years in the county, he was elected to the Legislature, as a Whig, from the strongly Democratic county of Jo Daviess. In '47, he was elected its Register of Deeds by over 600 majority. In '49 he was appointed Receiver of public moneys at Dixon, Ill., by President Taylor, and had the high honor of being one of the first removed by his successor, Pierce. In '52 he was nominated by the Whigs of Chicago for Congress, and, after a hotly-contested canvass, was beaten by "Long John Wentworth." The city was then fiercely Democratic, and gave Pierce more than 2,600 over Scott; but, on the same day, Wentworth had but 1,100 majority over Aldrich. The latter held various offices of trust—town, county, and State, and, in '56, was swept by the torrent of Westward-setting adventure to Minneapolis, at the Falls of St. Anthony, in Minnesota. After a year's residence, he was chosen by his new acquaintances as a delegate to the convention to form a State constitution, of which body he was an active and useful member, being author of many important provisions. In Sep-

tember, '57, he was nominated by the Republicans for Congress; elected by a majority of 600; and then swindled out of his seat, with his colleagues, by the most audacious and infamous frauds that ever disgraced any State. Large numbers of the frontier tribes were driven to the ballot-box and counted against him, on the presumption of being "civilized"—civilization being made to consist in wearing pantaloons, drinking whisky, and voting "right." The whisky and pants were furnished at the polls; each donned the bifurcated garment on approaching the hallowed ground, deposited the freeman's ballot, and slid out of the emblems of "civilization" as another slid in. Hence, many of the required votes. Forgeries and perjuries made up the rest. In '59, Aldrich was re-nominated and elected by 4,000; in '61 elected again, to the present Congress, by a majority of 10,000 in a poll of 37,000 votes.

Col. Aldrich is one of the people, and so hates aristocracy. He is straightforward, and so hates the trimmers and frunkeys. He is an ardent friend of liberty in America, and so despises the traitors in masquerade who poison the air of the Capitol. He is industrious, and so has no respect for the smart jugglers who delay legislation by a trick of words. His *forte* is a power of concentration and execution. He stands in this XXXVIIth Congress as a Type of the Working Member. During the morning rushing to the President's or to the Departments to ascertain something for somebody or forward the claims of a worthy applicant; punctually in his seat at 12, and informing his epistolary bores in a peck of letters of the results of his morning's work in their behalf; urging a pending measure on fellow-members; visiting the hospitals in the evening to look for Minnesota sick [and see that they are relieved—he is always busy, and always busy to a purpose. He deserves equal credit with Judge Potter for the renewed introduction and final passage of the present admirable Homestead Bill, of which he is the author. He is a perfect miracle of indefatigability, his excessive good nature being a chief weakness. He has never less than twenty irons in the fire, but keeps them flying and permits none to burn. I know a heretical "good man"—a faithful doer of duty—who, on being questioned by an itinerant tract-dispenser, said—"I pray with my hands." Thus is the Colonel eloquent. Each hand is an orator of thrilling power, every finger a marvellous speech-maker. If there is any man in this Capitol who gives ten times an equivalent for what he gets, that man is the subject of this sketch; and could the thriving "Lake State" watch him for a week, and see how faithful he is to his constituents, and how

constant to freedom in every guise, she would ask him to represent her for the next decade of years.

FREDERICK A. CONKLING,

(REPRESENTATIVE FROM NEW YORK.)

whom I do not know personally, but for whose sterling patriotism and steadfast industry in our common cause I have an enthusiastic appreciation :

Friend, in this fearful struggle for the Right !
Oh, brother wrestler in our common cause !
Upholder of our rashly trampled laws !
Good warrior in the fight !

I stretch to thee a not unworthy hand,
In that my soul is large enough to know
And feel the mighty truths which nerve thee so
To battle for our land !

I give thee greeting through my rising tears ;
I say, God speed thee on thy venturous way ;
I say, if we should win this desperate day,
Through the thick coming years

A voice shall utter how thy strength went forth
To nerve thine upright heart, thine honest hand ,
Sturdiest among the brothers of our band—
The heroes of the North !

FRANCIS W. KELLOGG,

OF MICHIGAN,

was born on the thirtieth day of May, A. D. 1810, in Hampshire Co., in the State of Massachusetts. He received only such education as the common schools of the State at that day afforded. When 22 years of age, he left New England for the State of Ohio, where he engaged in business and remained several years. But we hear very

little of him until we find him on the stump in 1840, going with the multitude for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," and one of the popular orators of the day. After this he lectured for some years on Temperance and Anti-Slavery in New York, New England, and the West, and we believe visited British America and England also.

Mr. Kellogg is not a member of what are called the learned professions, but styles himself a "lumberman," having engaged in that business in 1854, when he went to Michigan, and followed it until the great fall in prices obliged him to abandon it.

In 1856 he supported the nomination of John C. Fremont, and was himself elected a member of the Legislature of Michigan for the term of two years.

In 1858 he was elected a member of Congress from the District in which he resided, by nearly 5,000 majority; and as further proof of his unvarying popularity among the people, he was, in 1860, renominated by acclamation and elected by more than 9,000 majority.

Mr. Kellogg comes of a good stock, both his grandfathers, paternal and maternal, having served in the revolutionary war. "My father," he says, "was a Jeffersonian Democrat, and I have always been an anti-slavery man. I have been a Republican ever since the party existed. I am in favor of emancipation, and voted to abolish slavery in the District, and thank God that I had a chance to do so. I am in favor of preserving the Union at any expense of blood and treasure.

"I believe in human progress and universal liberty, and therefore, of course, in universal education and the elevation of the masses; and I believe in the doctrines of the Declaration of Independence as I do in the Bible."

Mr. Kellogg possesses strong original traits of character. Sentiment and poetical feeling are largely developed in his honest and genial nature; and he is impulsive, but not at the expense of prudence. His immense popularity with the loyal and outspoken people of Michigan is owing to his cordial appreciation of, and intense sympathy with the masses. He is a man of the people, and between him and the great mass of his constituents there is a perfect understanding and an unwavering confidence.

DANIEL WOLSEY VOORHEES.

MR. VOORHEES is a native of Indiana, born on the 26th September, 1828, in the county of Fountain. We have a right to expect much from Mr. Voorhees, for he is singularly fortunate in his genealogical antecedents. His great-grandfather on his father's side was a soldier in the New Jersey line, and followed Washington through the memorable campaign of 1776-'7. To this worthy soldier and patriot was born a son, who emigrated in the earliest times to the Western wilderness, and became the companion of Boone and the other forest kings who wrested Kentucky from the savages. He fought at the great battle of the Blue Licks, and in many other of the fierce engagements between the red men and the white men of "the dark and bloody ground." The father of Mr. Voorhees was born in Mercer County, Kentucky, married into an old and excellent Maryland family, and afterwards settled in Fountain County, Indiana, where he became and is a successful farmer, finding great enjoyment in his stock of fine cattle and blooded horses; in which latter taste he is sympathized with greatly by his son, the subject of our sketch.

At the age of sixteen, Mr. Voorhees entered upon his studies preparatory to entering college, and in due time became an undergraduate in the Indiana Asbury University, from which institution he received his bachelor's degree, under highly creditable auspices, in 1849. Having determined to seek his fortune in the legal profession, Mr. Voorhees, soon after leaving his Alma Mater, entered student of law in the office of Messrs. Lane & Willson, at Crawfordsville.

In November, 1850, Mr. Voorhees was admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court of Indiana and of the United States Circuit and District Courts; and that his success was sufficiently encouraging is evident from the fact that in 1853 he was appointed Prosecuting Attorney for the Eighth Judicial Circuit, which embraced the place of his nativity and residence. And that this enlargement of the sphere of his official duties detracted nothing from the popular appreciation of his abilities, is evident from the fact that in 1854 he was offered the Democratic nomination for Congress in that district—an honor which he declined. He was again nominated and by acclamation in the Democratic Congressional Convention for that district, in 1856. This nomination he accepted, and proceeded at once to open the canvass, and long will that canvass be remembered in the Eighth District. The Democrats had been beaten in the last election by a majority of

two thousand six hundred and nineteen votes. Mr. Voorhees had a vigorous, talented, and popular leader of the opposite party to contend with, and was beaten, according to the *published* returns, by two hundred and thirty votes—while his personal vote was six hundred ahead of his party on the State ticket. Suspicions of foul play were aroused. Charges of corruption and illegal voting were freely made. And at last, while he utterly repudiated any idea of contesting the election for himself, Mr. Voorhees was induced to undertake the legal investigation of the matter for others. That he did it vigorously is apparent from the results. He succeeded in obtaining decisions from the Circuit and Supreme Courts, which set aside the election for county officers in both the counties of Fountain and Warren. Not one of the fancied victors held on to the coveted spoils, and in several instances they ingloriously fled from the field of their questionable achievements.

In 1857, Mr. Voorhees located in the city of Terre Haute, a wider professional field being presented there than in the little town of Covington, where he had, up to this time, resided. And here, in 1858, he was appointed to the important and lucrative office of United States District Attorney for the District of Indiana, by Mr. Buchanan. The next year, John Brown "marched on" his raid into Virginia, carrying with him John E. Cook, a brother-in-law of Governor Willard, of Indiana, who, with the rest, was captured by the authorities of the State, and indicted for treason, murder, and inciting insurrection. Governor Willard obtained the services of Mr. Voorhees for the defence of Mr. Cook. The occasion is so recent, and Mr. Voorhees filled so large a space in the public mind at that melancholy trial, that it is unnecessary to dwell long upon the subject here. It is one, however, of great importance and interest—not only for what it was of itself, but still more from what it has proven itself to have been as a precursor of what was to come after it. From one who was present we have had an account of the scene in court while Mr. Voorhees was delivering his speech to the jury in Cook's defence. How the crowd stood statue still for over an hour and a half—brawny, dark-browed men, with arms folded across their breasts, as if to bar out too much pity for the misguided but guilty prisoner at the bar; and how lovely women, who knew that only Heaven had saved them from a fate worse than death, still relented, wept over, forgave the man who would have consigned them to that fate, under the spell which the prisoner's counsel cast upon them by his eloquence. The most significant illustration of the power of that speech, however, is

found in the verdict of the jury. By the laws of Virginia, a person convicted of treason is hopelessly consigned to death. The Governor is forbid, in such cases, the use of the pardoning power. The jury found him "not guilty of treason"—thus virtually leaving the task of consigning him to death to the Governor, who *could* pardon for murder. Seldom indeed is such homage paid to the genius of a prisoner's counsel. But this was not all. Mr. Voorhees was immediately afterwards invited to deliver the anniversary address before the literary societies of the University of Virginia at the approaching commencement of that ancient seat of learning. This invitation he accepted, and discharged the duty it imposed in such a manner as to not only extend, but to increase the reputation he had already gained among the high-spirited and refined people of the Old Dominion.

Immediately on his return to Indiana he was nominated by the Douglas Democrats of the Seventh District as their candidate for Congress. As he was holding an important office under Mr. Buchanan at the time, his acceptance of this nomination was deemed especially unkind in him by the Breckinridge men, and they nominated Hon. James A. Scott, while the Republicans nominated Colonel Thomas H. Nelson, brother of General Nelson of the United States Army, and now United States Minister to the Republic of Chili. In this triangular political duel the odds were greatly against Mr. Voorhees. Both his opponents were gentlemen of fine talents, were good stump speakers, and very popular; and while the district was supposed to be Democratic, it was known to have always previously gone as the State went; and as there were unmistakable signs that the Republicans would carry the State, betting on Mr. Voorhees' election was esteemed rather a "fancy" operation. But, while the State did go Republican by over ten thousand majority, Mr. Voorhees beat his Republican antagonist one thousand and nineteen votes, and the Breckinridge gentleman and him together six hundred and fifty votes.

Mr. Voorhees has now been in Congress something over a year; and it is doing no one injustice to say, that few men have ever, in so short a time, risen to the position he enjoys in the esteem of his friends in and out of that body. And those who can not be called his political friends, yet pay him the compliment on the floor of Congress of listening to what he may have to say with the *liveliest* interest, and feel called upon to answer him.

Politically, Mr. Voorhees is, to use his own language, "a Western man, and stands by Western interests on the Tariff, Taxation, &c.,—has always held that we must have free passage to the Gulf of Mexico,

and that the Union was born of the Constitution, and must be maintained under it, and not outside or in violation of it."

Many of the personal characteristics of our subject may be gathered from what we have said about him. Our picture, however, would be incomplete, left as it is at present. We have spoken of Mr. Voorhees' good fortune in a genealogical point of view. He is equally fortunate in his organization and temperament. Blood will tell, and it does not require unusual sagacity to discover, nor a very intimate acquaintance with him to appreciate the many traits in the case before us which account for the magnetic influence that we have seen exerted upon other men. We give but a single illustration of our philosophy. The present (Methodist) Bishop Simpson was Mr. V.'s college President, and to-day Mr. V. avows the belief that the Bishop is the greatest man in this country!—an avowal that the Bishop would hold to be more creditable to Mr. V.'s *heart* than true in point of fact.

Mr. Voorhees is in person tall, well proportioned, and graceful. His head is finely formed, and carried well up, almost defiantly, which, combined with well-defined, clearly cut, and firm features, illuminated with large, dark, flashing eyes, and overhung by a full prominent brow, from which the hair is turned back like a mane, gives him quite a leonine expression:—he is, a lady may be excused for saying, a very handsome man, indeed! And in addition to all this, he has all the other graces of voice and accomplishments of mind that are the elements of an orator and powerful popular leader. We expect to hear much of him hereafter.

CHARLES J. BIDDLE

represents the Second Congressional District of Pennsylvania, being a part of the city of Philadelphia. He was born in that city, in 1819, and was educated at Princeton College, N. J. He is a member of the Philadelphia bar.

He served as a Captain of Voltigeurs and Brevet-Major U. S. Army, during the war with Mexico; and at the breaking out of the rebellion he again entered the military service, on the 13th of June, 1861, as a Colonel of Pennsylvania Volunteers. Being placed by the Governor of Pennsylvania in command of two regiments, he occu-

pied parts of Maryland and Virginia, and restored and maintained the communication by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. While in the field he was elected, July 2d, 1861, to the 37th Congress, to fill a vacancy occasioned by the resignation of the Hon. E. Joy Morris.

Soon after this election, a Brigadier-General's commission was tendered to him by the Federal Government; which he declined, as inconsistent with the engagements which he had assumed towards the people of his District. Colonel Biddle did not, however, take his seat during the extra session, but remained in military service till the beginning of the second session, December, 1861. His regiment then going into winter quarters near Washington City, and his constituents calling upon him to take his seat, he resigned his military commission, and, in answer to an address from citizens of Philadelphia, wrote a letter giving his views on political subjects and the conduct of the war.

Declaring his continued adherence to the Democratic Party, he said :

"When I say I am a Democratic, I do not mean that I belong to any knot of politicians. When I say I am a Democrat, I mean that I have ever maintained those national principles which, under God, made and preserved us a nation; those great national principles of justice and equality for all the States which, so long as they were practiced, made our various institutions and interchangeable commodities bonds of strength and union rather than grounds for strife."

And he ascribed "our national troubles to those twin fomenters of discord, the Abolitionist of the North, and the Secessionist of the South."

His votes and speeches in the House have been in accordance with these opinions.

JAMES SIDNEY ROLLINS

was born in Richmond, Madison Co., Kentucky, on the 19th day of April, 1813. He was a *sprightly bad boy*, and until the age of 15 he was a pupil of the Richmond Academy. At the age of 15 he was sent to Washington College, Pennsylvania, where he remained through the sophomore and junior years, after which he followed that learned and good man, the Rev. Andrew Wylie, who was called from Washington College to take charge of the University of Indiana, at

Bloomington. Entering his senior year in the Indiana University, he graduated there, the fall of 1830. From Bloomington he went to Missouri, where his parents had removed the year previous, to the county of Broome, and where he has resided ever since.

Shortly after settling in Missouri he commenced the study of law with the Hon. Abiel Leonard, and he finished his legal education at the Law School of Transylvania University, Lexington, Ky., where he graduated in the spring of 1833.

Returning to Missouri, he settled permanently in Columbia, the county-seat of Boone County, where he commenced the practice of his profession. In 1832 he was appointed "aide-de-camp" of Major General Richard Gentry (who afterwards fell at the battle of Ochecho-kee, in Florida), and was engaged in military service for a short time, on the northern frontier of Missouri, during the Black Hawk war. He was married in June, 1837, and immediately thereafter settled on a beautiful farm immediately adjoining the town of Columbia, where he now resides, and gives a large part of his time to the successful pursuit of agriculture.

In 1838, when he was barely eligible under the constitution of the State of Missouri, he became a candidate for the Legislature, and was elected by a very large majority. Born and reared under the auspices of the great statesman of Kentucky, Henry Clay, he entered political life an earnest and enthusiastic Whig, and continued true to the Whig faith so long as that great party continued in existence. In the Legislature of Missouri he distinguished himself as an earnest advocate of the cause of popular education.

In 1840 he was again a candidate for the Legislature, in the county of Boone, and was again elected by a large majority. He took an active part in the Presidential contest of this year, in favor of Gen. Harrison.

In 1842 he was again a candidate for re-election, and was equally successful, his constituents endorsing his political course by an increased majority.

In 1844 he represented the Congressional District in which he lived, in the great Whig convention which assembled in Baltimore, and aided in the nomination of Mr. Clay, and which he followed up with his most earnest and active support.

In 1846 he was nominated, by the Whig party of his Senatorial District, composed of the counties of Boone and Audrain, for the State Senate, and was elected by a large majority. He served in the Senate of Missouri for four years, and identified himself largely, whilst

there, with the cause of popular education and internal improvements. Before the expiration of his Senatorial term, he was nominated by a large Whig Convention of the State, which assembled in Boonville, in April, 1848, as the Whig candidate for Governor. He accepted the nomination, and made a brilliant canvass of the State against the Hon. Austin King, who was the nominee of the Democratic party. He ran against a large majority, and, although defeated, made a splendid race, reducing the heavy Democratic majority, and becoming ever afterwards a great favorite with his political and party friends.

In 1850 he was invited by President Fillmore to attend the annual examination of Cadets at the United States Military Academy, West Point, which he accepted.

In the winter of 1848-'49 he was voted for by his political friends for the Senate of the United States, the Hon. David R. Atcheson being elected, in consequence of the great majority of Democrats in the Legislature.

In 1854 he was again nominated, by the Whigs of Boone County, for the Legislature, and, after an exciting canvass, he was chosen by a handsome majority. During the session of the Legislature, he was an earnest advocate of the cause of internal improvements, and the State of Missouri is much indebted to him for her great system of public works, which has added so largely to the wealth and prosperity of the Commonwealth.

In 1856 he was chosen a Whig Presidential Elector, and canvassed in favor of Mr. Fillmore.

In 1857 he was again nominated as the Whig and American candidate for Governor, which nomination he accepted, and made an energetic and splendid canvass of the State against the Hon. Robert M. Stewart, who was the Democratic candidate. Starting out with a Democratic majority of 15,000 against him, it was reduced to *two hundred and thirty*, out of one hundred thousand votes cast in the election. The returns from this election were very unusually delayed, and especially from the remote and distant counties of the State; and by many intelligent persons it was believed that, with a fair count of the vote, Mr. Rollins was elected.

In 1860 Mr. Rollins was nominated by the Whig and American parties as their candidate for Congress in the Second Congressional District. He was opposed by the Hon. John B. Henderson, as the Democratic candidate—Mr. R. supporting Mr. Bell for the Presidency, and Mr. Henderson supporting Judge Douglas. These gentlemen canvassed the District thoroughly together, meeting and ad-

dressing the voters in all the counties. It was an exceedingly interesting political canvass, both of the gentlemen being good speakers and equally intent upon success. It ended in the election of Mr. R. by several hundred majority, and the candidates quitting the contest good friends.

Upon the election of Mr. Lincoln, and the breaking out of the rebellion, Mr. Rollins was prompt to take his stand against the secession of Missouri, and firmly and unconditionally for the Union. Against great odds, he resisted, with his pen and tongue, the fatal heresy of Secession. He supported the action of the State Convention, providing for a Provisional Government for the State of Missouri, and has been a warm and firm friend of the administration of Gov. Gamble. Since he took his seat in Congress, he has given a firm and consistent support to the General Government, and to all those measures looking to the preservation of the Federal Constitution and the American Union. He has opposed all radical measures, such as confiscation and emancipation by the General Government, upon the ground that they tended to prolong the rebellion, and to complicate and make more difficult the work of reconstruction. His old friend and competitor, Mr. Henderson, is now in the Senate of the United States, having received this appointment at the hands of Governor Gamble, to supply the vacancy occasioned by the expulsion of the Hon. Waldo P. Johnson on the ground of disloyalty. Mr. Henderson is a thorough Union man.

In his political opinions and conduct Mr. Rollins has been through life consistent. A firm Whig, following with confidence and enthusiasm, from the commencement of his career, the teaching and example of his great model and exemplar, Henry Clay. In private life he is a most genial companion, social in disposition, benevolent in his action, and liberal and cultivated in his opinions. He is most justly popular, and highly esteemed by his political friends and foes. He is a graceful and eloquent speaker, and is regarded as one of the best popular orators of the West.

He has taken an active part upon all those questions intended to elevate and advance the cause of general education, and to improve and develop the physical resources of Missouri, and is justly esteemed as one of the most public-spirited and enterprising citizens of the great State with whose people he has been identified from the time of his early manhood.

SCHUYLER COLFAX.

We will introduce Mr. Colfax to our readers by an extract taken from a work, entitled "Early Indiana Trials and Sketches," by "Oliver H. Smith." Of Mr. Colfax, Mr. Smith says :

"Few men of his age have acquired so much reputation at home and abroad, within the past few years, as the subject of this sketch. I had known Mr. Colfax but partially before he took his seat, as a delegate in the Indiana Constitutional Convention of 1850. It was in that body that he developed the character of his mind, and showed that he possessed intellectual powers of no ordinary character. He deservedly stood among the active and useful members of the Convention ; after which he represented his district in Congress with signal ability. Mr. Colfax is a self-made man, who, by the force of his native powers, and in despite of the want of a classical education, has raised himself to the high position which he occupies among his contemporaries. As a speaker he is plain, distinct, fluent, forcible. Mr. Colfax is under medium height, rather slim and spare, large forehead, brown hair and eyes, pale face, good features. Mr. Colfax was an ardent Whig while that party existed, and after its dissolution became a leader in the 'Republican Party,' in support of John C. Fremont ; he also took a very active part in the debate upon the Kansas and Nebraska question."

Mr. Colfax is still a young man on the "sunny side" of forty ; has represented his district in Congress successively since the year 1854 ; is an active leading member of the Republican party in the House, and is familiarly designated by his fellow-members as "*the working member from Indiana.*" All subjects of legislation introduced into the House (of public importance) are by him fully examined, and discussed with signal ability. He is always prepared, always eloquent, always prompt and ready.

Mr. Colfax is distinguished for his devotion to his friends, his magnanimity and benevolence to his enemies ; for the genuine kindness of his heart and the affability of his manners ; for his fair and comprehensive mode of viewing subjects, his vision being never distorted by prejudice or passion ; for his great industry and executive powers, and his earnest services to his country ; and prominent, above all, for his liberality, *especially to the unfortunate*, as many of the sick and wounded soldiers are willing witnesses.

We think that the following paragraph regarding Mr. Colfax, from the lively pen of Mrs. S. C. Ames, the Washington correspondent of the *Springfield Republican*, will prove very acceptable to our readers :

"The member who has just arisen to speak looks very much like a boy. From the gallery, I should say that he had scarcely seen the number of years requisite to insure him a seat in this 'honorable body.' On a nearer view he presented a less juvenile aspect. You look into this gentleman's face to behold a sufficient number of crow-feet to assure you that at least three decades of years have left their usual tracks behind them. He is slightly below medium height, has classic features, brown hair, and brown eyes, with the kindest of smiles in them. His face does not reflect vehement passion or power in its owner; it is the reflex rather of a nature at once sympathetic and sensitive; active, earnest, and aspiring. He is not making an agonistic speech; he is not invoking the manes of the past, nor presaging the terrors of the future; he is not writhing, and tossing, and groaning, to empty his mouth of a few oratorical bubbles exploding into nothing, after the fashion of some of these ornate orators. He is simply talking, talking rapidly, earnestly, simply, yet with voice and manner so winning that everybody is attracted to listen. This is Hon. Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana. Schuyler Colfax, the indefatigable. His name is historic. Pure, patriotic blood runs in this man's veins. He is a descendant of Gen. Schuyler, and of Capt. Colfax who commanded the body-guard of Gen. Washington. This fact would not be of the slightest consequence if the race had degenerated, but as a man Mr. Colfax is worthy of his name. He is another of our self-made public men. A widow's son, a poor boy, he educated himself for life and labor, wrestling against the odds of fate with undaunted courage, and a sunny patience which won for him friends as well as fortune. He was educated in that most practical of all colleges, a printing-office, which in its course of discipline includes with literary culture, worldly tact and shrewdness, and a thorough knowledge of men. He has been since 1843 the proprietor of the *South Bend Register*, and the irrepressible instinct of the editor betrays itself in his eagerness for news, and his facility in obtaining it; making him to many members of the House almost as acceptable as the morning papers. He finds in politics his natural element. I conclude that he has always breathed it, since as a boy of twelve he drove about from town to town with Hon. Mr. Lane, of Indiana, listening to the impassioned appeals of that eloquent senator. Mr. Colfax is now one of the leading politicians of Washington. He is distinguished for his devotion to his friends, his benevolence to his enemies; for the genuine kindness of his heart, and the affability of his manners; for his fair, comprehensive mode of viewing subjects, his vision being rarely distorted by prejudice or passion; for his great industry and executive powers, and his earnest services to his country. A sunny, ceaseless worker, he is a humiliation to all drones, in whatever hive he finds them."

WILLIAM KELLOGG,
OF ILLINOIS.

THERE is not one other man in the House of Representatives more beloved by his friends and more feared by his enemies, than Judge Kellogg, of Illinois. And who are his friends? Every true man not tainted with the damnable plague-spot of ultraism strikes hands with William Kellogg. Every patriot with the good of his whole country at heart, and with a soul too large for sectionalism of any sort, indorses his manly, out-spoken course of action in the XXXVIIth Congress. The personal and political friend of the President, he was one of the first to come to his side amid the excitement caused in certain localities by his conservative course, and to give him the support of hand and voice—a hand that never falters in the service of the right—a voice whose convincing logic and earnest invective is the terror of opponents when he rises to speak. Judge Kellogg may be put down as the strong man of the conservative Republican party in Illinois, their champion in the Northwest; and the enemies of the party, who are quite sharp enough to see how very much he is in their way, and what fatal damage he may do to *their* interests, regard him pretty much as the man did the bull who got into his china-shop; and very naturally and as is to be expected, they have placed him in the position of the best-abused man in the XXXVIIth Congress, from the Northwest; and they make it their business to misrepresent and falsify every movement of his, without, however, being able to successfully shake the confidence of the people in a man whose staunch loyalty and true nobility of nature have been thrice tried and proven. Judge Kellogg is a native of Northern Ohio, about forty-seven years of age, and about as fine a looking specimen of Congressional dignity and Western jurisprudence, in connection with rosy health and cordiality of manner, as you would wish to shake hands with any day. He is self-educated, and in early life was engaged in agricultural and mercantile pursuits; but was admitted to the bar at the early age of twenty-three. He emigrated to Illinois in 1847, and practiced law there successfully for many years. He was elected to the Legislature in 1848, and held the office of Judge of the Tenth Judicial Circuit Court of Illinois, from 1850 to 1853. At the expiration of that period, he resigned his office and returned to the practice of the law. He was elected to Congress in 1856, and re-elected in '58 and '60, which is proof incontestable of his great popularity among his constituents. Judge Kellogg has been identified

with the Republican party since its organization; but has always been found among the conservative men of that body, and gives a strong support to the policy of the present Administration; and has sustained it in Congress, and elsewhere. His eloquent speech, "in favor of the Union," delivered in the House, February 8, 1861, has had a well-deserved popularity with all parties—the abolition wing of the Republican party excepted; by them he was much abused for it. His speech on the confiscation of rebel property, delivered May 24, 1862, in the House, is a settler to all who have insinuated doubts of his soundness on that vexed question. And that of February, 1862, on the Treasury Note Bill, is an able resume of the whole matter under discussion, while it gave a loyal and unfaltering support to the Government, in its hour of need.

FRANCIS P. BLAIR, JR.,

OF MISSOURI.

THERE are people who hold that rare oratorical talent is the one thing indispensable to a successful political career. But, potent as may be the influence which brilliancy of delivery always commands, its triumphs can be but evanescent, if it is not backed by real hard-headed practicalism, and a steady and stout-handed industry. Immense as may be the interest caused by an impressive address, and enthusiastic as may be the appreciation which meets half-way the magnetic eloquence of a man who draws the feelings of his auditors within the compass of his will, and sways them whichever way his policy may dictate; yet, if this man be not fitted by the strength of a powerful organization, or some unusually intense vital power, to look failure sternly in the face until he frowns it down; to work hardest even when the country is ringing with the report of his triumphs; if he have not the real genuine quality of backbone—the strength to comprehend and not falter in view of the saddest reverses, even while his hopes are fixed upon the highest success—then the achievement of political distinction is not his occupation, and, if wise, he will choose some more flowery path, if he grounds his claims to it chiefly upon his possession of oratorical talent. The very superficial analysis which I shall here make of the character and individuality of the man whose name heads this article, is the result of personal observation,

unassisted by any private sources of information. My facilities for looking into his past life have been very few. I judge him chiefly by the prominent facts in his political career, with which we are all more or less familiar. We know that he was born in a slave State—at Lexington, in Kentucky ; educated at Princeton College ; and, in selecting a profession, chose that of the law ; and that another slave State—Missouri—has been the scene of all his political efforts and successes ; and, therefore, even the most prejudiced must acknowledge that his individual views, in regard to the “peculiar institution,” are not the result of any ignorant Utopianism, or of uninformed zeal. He has had the facts in this case all his life before his eyes, and has judged and given his influence as the peculiar constitution of his mind dictated. Perhaps the event which has exercised, and will still exercise, the most important influence upon his career, was his leaving the *then* dominant party in the Border States, and identifying his fortunes with the interests of the Republican combination. We might laud his withdrawal from what was then the strong party, at such a time, as an evidence of political foresight and sagacity, did we not know that the very character of the man, as set forth in all his actions, precluded any such conclusion. His course was evidently dictated by a strong sense of justice, even more than by the instinctive perception that the balance of power must shortly incline to the then weak side of the dispute. He has a very keen perceptive sense of right and wrong. He does not make diffuse promises, or lead you to expect a great deal of his generosity, but you may rely upon his justice ; and if you will trust him for that, and avoid exciting his combative propensities, you will find, in nine cases out of ten, that he never does less, but very often more, than he promises. He has not asked, for the negro, as much as some more enthusiastic philanthropists of his party have demanded ; for, naturally, he is moderate, and not prone to rush into extremes. But he has demanded for the race what he considers justice—nothing more or less ; and if not so sanguine in his views as the more generous among our political reformers, no man is gifted with a more intense perseverance in the forwarding of his desires. He is not enthusiastic ; he is not sensitive ; nor is he sentimental. You cannot always chance upon the soft side of his nature ; and so, many will accuse him of hardness. Yet he is naturally kind, though very blunt, and not demonstrative. An honest hater, and a strong lover. But, if you have ever seen him, you must have noticed the peculiar shape of his head ; and, if so, you will not ask me a single question about his possession of what some people call “*Will power*,” and

I would not advise you to get in his way, or to cross his path, unless you feel quite sure you can hold your own; for there is a merciless something in his eye, which denotes that he would not hesitate to crush and trample recklessly out of his path any obstacle which might come between him and his desires. If you undertake to combat his aroused prejudices, if you enter the field against him, as foe meets foe, you must not expect any quarter. He does not ask it for himself, and he will not grant it to you, so long as your shadow falls anywhere across his onward path. He is obstinately practical, and does not care a snap for all the prettinesses of sentiment. . He wants to see the plain hard facts in the case. You cannot cheat him with rhetoric, or surprise him off his guard into enthusiasm. He is cool, and sceptical, and hard-headed, and nothing but the facts will convince or satisfy him. He is the strong man of his party in Missouri, and because, for so many years in the past, he boldly stood up against tremendous odds in that State, waging such a good fight for his peculiar creed, he has gained the confidence of the party throughout the State, and it is next to impossible to shake the trust which they have in his steadfastness. Since the breaking out of this war, he has been tireless in his efforts and self-sacrifices for the good of the city which he represents; and he has never for a moment hesitated to sacrifice popularity to his ideas of what the welfare of his State demanded; and unflinchingly has he borne the brunt of all the odium which he was conscious the course that he had chosen would at times involve. It is interesting to speculate on the influence which the city that has returned him for the third time to his seat in the House, will exert upon the political feeling of the State of which it is the most influential district.

He is one of the hardest working men in the house; and his are not political or Utopian schemes. He will not waste breath or brains on any project, unless he sees just how the profit and loss account of his constituents will be balanced in the end. He is ever awake and active in his endeavors to benefit those who have committed their interests to his keeping. Any one who reflects for a moment on the enormous pressure upon his time and attention, will know how to appreciate his immense additional labors on the Military Committee, of which he is chairman, and in this connection he has certainly developed a very strong practical and discriminative talent in military affairs. Finally, he has in him all the elements of a successful politician: eminently practical, far-sighted, not obsequious.

Cautious, but impervious to censure when once his course is decided on; obstinately industrious; honest, but not over-scrupulous

of the means that bring about the end ; without any false refinement ; a dealer in facts rather than in words ; prudent enough never to neglect minor details ; and quick to foresee and propose a remedy for disadvantages.

Frank Blair possesses what I call a two-fold aspect. Meeting him on the street any fine day, you see a tall, well-made, Saxon-looking man, with a face remarkable for its intensity of expression, as the expression is that of indomitable will ; but looking at him from the gallery of the House, as he lounges around the hall, or sits in his seat, you are struck by his almost boyish appearance. He is forty-one, and he looks thirty by the light. This is owing partly to his peculiar manner of wearing his thick light hair, and partly to the juvenile style of collar, but mostly to the man's mental conformation.

JAMES M. ASHLEY,

OF OHIO.

I REMEMBER very well the favorable impression which General Ashley's manner and personal appearance made on my mind during the first interview I had with him. I had gone up to the Capitol on business which required that I should see some member of the House Committee on the District of Columbia, of which he is a member, and in response to the summons for "General Ashley, of Ohio," a tall man, of rather portly presence, and most pleasant countenance, lighted by kind, keen blue eyes, and framed by curling brown hair, made his appearance. General Ashley, in personal appearance, gives strong tokens of his English descent. He is the grandson of an English gentleman, who, being reduced in fortune, migrated to South Carolina, afterwards to North Carolina, and then to Norfolk, Virginia, where the Rev. John C. Ashley, the father of the subject of the present sketch, was born, in 1801. Like very many men whose most strongly marked peculiarities of character are great self-reliance, a spirit of enterprise, and adventurous daring, coupled with dauntless perseverance, General Ashley's early life was unsettled and rather cosmopolitan. He was born November 14th, 1824, and has crowded into his thirty-eight years the experience of many a longer-lived man, and has seen life under many contradictory phases of prosperity and

adversity. He wearied of his quiet home-life at the age of sixteen, and after that time relied upon his own resources. He has worked as a day laborer. Getting tired of this, he tries his hand at steam-boating on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers—that is to say, he “follows the river,” sometimes as a cabin-boy, then as a clerk, and again as pilot—and afterwards as a clerk in New Orleans. Youthful ardor and enterprise must have its swing. General Ashley having had his, and his hot spirits being somewhat sobered down, he settled very peaceably to the study of the law, in the office of Charles Oscar Tracey, Esq., of Portsmouth, a distinguished lawyer in Southern Ohio. Soon after his admission to practice he moved to his present place of residence, where, finding that the lawyers were too many for the clients, he very wisely turned his attention to the drug business, and, as usual, with his characteristic ardor and activity, he soon found himself doing a large wholesale trade. In this occupation he met serious reverses—by fire, and during the dark hours of 1857. But instead of waiting, like Micawber, for “something to turn up,” he forced the “something” to turn itself up, and that “something,” in this case, proved to be politics. In this new sphere of action his old habits of fearless self-reliance and courageous hopefulness, with a robust industry directed by a clear head, became invaluable to him. His energetic exertions and self-reliance triumphed, and he was elected by a flattering majority in a district which he had been mainly instrumental in converting to Republicanism. His hearty and cordial exertions for the interests of his constituents in Congress made him a great favorite, and they testified their appreciation of his services by re-electing him..

General Ashley has made his mark during his brief Congressional career. To his own peculiar creed, which is antagonistic to slavery, he has ever been unswervingly and religiously faithful, without evincing anything of a bigoted or fanatical spirit. His course has been such as to win for him the confidence and admiration of all with whom he has been associated in public life. He was the first public man in the country to suggest the form of a provisional government for the rebellious States, and introduced into Congress the only measure, as Mr. Brownson justly remarks in his Review, “which on that subject rises to the dignity of statesmanship.” And it is greatly owing to his efforts that the Bill for the Abolition of Slavery in the District has been passed. “At the organization of the present Congress, General Ashley was honored with the appointment of Chairman of the Committee on Territories of the House of Representatives, a position

which enabled him to exercise a kind of supervisory care over the various Territorial Bills introduced into the House. He has had frequent occasion for the exercise of a sound discretion with reference to these measures, and in no instance has he failed to preserve his integrity to the anti-slavery sentiment. He has the courage always to follow his convictions to their logical conclusion." His faithfulness to his purposes and convictions results from a genuine sympathy with the people, and a freedom from all time-serving proclivities.

General Ashley has made several speeches during the present and at former sessions of Congress, all of which are remarkable for their clear and comprehensive statement of facts and enlarged views of the subjects discussed. His first speech in Congress, on the Supreme Court of the United States, opened the eyes of the Legislators as well as those of the people at the time of its delivery to certain facts of which they had until then been oblivious, and has ever since been used as a text by members of Congress and others, who have been led by it to watch the growth of the power of Southern traitors over our government. The record of General Ashley's public life is unusually creditable for so young a man, and his strong, energetic, and comprehensive mind has before it a future which may be as full of fame as he may choose to make it. He is one of the most promising of our rising legislators, and has before him a career of great usefulness to his country, and of honor to himself.

The following very piquant sketch of Gen. Ashley is from the ever-welcome correspondent of the *Springfield Republican*, Mrs. S. C. Ames:

" WASHINGTON, Tuesday, May 20.

" Like mountains, some men are always visible. This is true of Hon. J. M. Ashley, of Ohio. Mr. Ashley may use as little volition as the mountain for the purpose of showing himself, nevertheless, like the mountain, we usually have the opportunity of beholding him to a very fine advantage. There are two reasons why Mr. Ashley is so often visible. One is that he is quite a large man, and of course absorbs more space than a small one; another is, that he is good-looking, and most people, especially women, are sure to see a good-looking man. My broad statement is in no danger of mortifying Mr. Ashley's opinion of his own personal appearance. I have never seen a man who was utter proof against feminine flattery. Sooner or later they learn to believe what women tell them, if so be the telling accords with their self-love. I think that women commenced to flatter Mr. Ashley in his youth; that years ago he came to consider himself a handsome man. I ignore the possibility of increasing the satisfaction which he feels in his personal appearance when I say, Mr. Ashley is a good-looking man. He has none of the spiritual or intellectual

beauty which exhausts and exhales the material. He rejoices in the vigorous organism, the full physical life which sends the blood from heart to brain in bountiful tides, strong, glad, and free. There he stands in the aisle, talking, laughing, occasionally slapping a friend on the back in a fashion more jolly than gentle—a man of nearly six feet, of full proportions, shaking his head beneath a Samson-like wealth of mane—a crest of black, exuberant hair which could only spring from the juices of a bounteous vitality. He has frank, merry eyes, with a twinkle of shrewdness in them, the eyes of a man who has never wasted his flesh fretting at fortune; eyes indicative of genuine good nature and a happy conscience not morbidly inclined to find fault with itself. *Enfin*, Mr. Ashley carries about perpetually a generous, jolly face, a radiantly smiling face; but its smiling is sunshine playing above a rock. The well-cut mouth laughs above a jaw where will waits entrenched. Not an irascible, defiant will, alert to repel invasion; but a dominant, aggressive will, seeking power, ever ready to seize it. It is the will of a man who rejoices 'to put men through' (for their own good and their country's, of course) when he can. While it subserves high moral qualities and a large philanthropy, such a will in a public man is a virtue. Mr. Ashley chooses to be the disciple of that man whose political platform he thoroughly endorses, whose high gifts and graces win from him the homage of an enthusiastic and generous nature; as he would choose also to be the master of all slow men, who lag in the rear of progressive measures. This is the only class of mortals who chafe and fret him. The impetuous will is impatient to push them onward. And if they were not all shaped in the right direction, it would be from an error of judgment, not of intention. Mr. Ashley is a man altogether too fond of being about, too appreciative of good cheer, genial friends, and earth's generous places, ever to pray to be

'Little and unknown,
Loved and prized by God alone.'

And, by the way, such a prayer is a humbug in anybody's mouth. The man who rhymed it had a most meager conception of his privileges, and a very shabby idea of the task of the Universal Father. It is impossible to be loved and prized by God alone. Anybody worthy to be prized by God will surely be by the best of his creatures, and loved by those whose love is worth having. I never asked him, but am quite sure that this is Mr. Ashley's opinion. He knows the worth of friends, he wants them, and wins them. Large humanities, kindly charities, have their place in this man's soul. He is capable of high enthusiasm and the most generous impulse. Not through suffering does he draw near to the suffering of the race, but through the lavish kindness of a spontaneous nature. His sympathies are with the oppressed; his efforts are for the down-trodden. His speeches are marked by their honesty, earnestness, and independence, with a blossoming-out here and there of the poetic instinct. All that is lofty in thought, all that is beautiful and pure in sentiment, appeals nearly to his higher nature. Indeed, he has a chamber in his brain which, for his own de-

light, he has inlaid with the jewels of other minds. If he would not in every emergency be a safe leader, it is because the vehemence of will, and the generosity of impulse, will sometimes inflame the coolness of judgment, and out-leap the decisions of reason. He is a radical, but his radicalism runs in the path of progression. If he uses men, it is for no bad purpose. If he moulds some, he follows others. He is both a leader and a follower. He is a man of mark in the House. His individuality is as palpable as his face, which you know I told you was usually visible. He is a fitting representative of the bounteous Buckeye State. Ohio would show very bad taste to send another man to take his seat."

HORACE MAYNARD,

OF TENNESSEE.

I WANT to say something to express my enthusiastic regard for this noble man. I have no autobiographical details in his case, and I only know him by sight—a tall, dark, intense-looking man, with a wonderfully gentle and graceful manner for such a man—sweet but sad! And he has borne enough to make him sad. I have said that I know him only by sight; but I know and honor him for that which we all know—for the anguish and the reviling which he has suffered for the truth's sake! Without a place on which to lay his head, but suffering more keenly through his sympathy with the sufferings of those near and dear to him. A man who can unblenchingly stand up against such terrible odds and breast the strong tide of frenzied prejudice, is proved a hero beyond all doubt. And we all know how his lips seemed touched as with a living coal when the conquering waves of the Union army bore him back to the scene first of his suffering and then of his triumph. God reward him! and he shall yet live to see the day when he shall sit in peace and quietness under his own vine and fig-tree in the land which his own hand is helping to make free.

ALFRED A. BURNHAM

was born in the town of Windham, Connecticut, March 8, 1819, of humble but highly respected parents. His father, Elijah Burnham, being a blacksmith, and supporting his family by his daily labor, the youth of Mr. Burnham was passed in toiling upon the farm, in the

shop, and in the saw-mill, and in the eager enjoyment of the limited advantages which Connecticut district schools afforded at that time for an education. He was an apt scholar, of quick perception, and his mind grew and strengthened even with those rude and scanty opportunities for mental culture, and at the age of eighteen he entered the Connecticut Literary Institution at Suffield, partially a manual labor school. The second year of his attendance at this school, he had so commended himself to his superiors, by his diligence and the progress he had made in his studies, that he was made a teacher in the Institution, and was enabled to carry on his studies at the same time. He remained at the Institution until the year 1840, when, being fitted for college, he was admitted to Washington (now Trinity) College, at Hartford, Connecticut. After remaining there about a year, being cramped for means, and feeling a great desire of entering his profession, he left college, and after a short time spent in teaching, commenced the study of law in the office of Cleveland & Hovey at Norwich, and was admitted to the bar of Windham County in December, 1843. His fellow-townersmen, who had watched how bravely he had struggled, from his boyhood, with adversity, and how success had crowned his efforts to acquire an education and a profession, in their good judgment gladly gave him their confidence, and elected him in 1844, and again in 1845, as their representative to the State Legislature. He took a prominent part in the proceedings of the sessions of both years, and his course fully justified the confidence placed in him. In 1846 he removed to Fairfield County, in the western part of the State, where his reputation had preceded him, and settled in the practice of law in Danbury ; the same year was elected Clerk of the Connecticut Senate, and also by the State Legislature, Judge of the important Probate District of Danbury. Although the duties imposed upon him by these different offices demanded a diversity of talent, he was fully equal to their requirements, and administered them with honor to himself and for the advancement of the best interests of the public. In December, 1848, he was married to the daughter of Ex-Governor Cleveland, a lady of rare virtue and accomplishments, and the next summer removed to Hampton, in his native county, residing there until the death of his wife in 1853, when he returned to Windham, where he at present resides.

The family connections of Mr. Burnham were all Democrats of the old Jackson school, and his political life was commenced in the Democratic party. As such he was elected to the Legislature in 1844 and 1845. When the question of the disposition of the territory

acquired from Mexico arose, he took early and decided ground in favor of excluding slavery from it, in accordance with the terms of the "Wilmot Proviso." He adhered to this policy firmly during his connection with that party; and would vote for no man as representative in either branch of Congress who was opposed to this policy. Acting upon this principle, in the Legislature of 1850, to which he was elected from the town of Hampton as a free-soil Democrat, and acting generally in that Legislature with the Democratic party, he, with about a dozen other Democrats from the same county, refused to vote for Isaac Toucey for the U. S. Senate, and thus prevented his election at that time. In revenge for this fearless exhibition of principle, the Democracy of the State Senate defeated his election as Bank Commissioner, to which office he had been nominated by the party and chosen by the vote of the House. Upon the repeal of the Missouri Compromise he abandoned the Democratic party and co-operated with others in organizing the Republican party in Connecticut, was a member of the first Republican State Convention which nominated Hon. Gideon Welles, now Secretary of the Navy, as candidate for Governor, and of the first National Republican Convention which assembled at Philadelphia and nominated Fremont.

In 1857, Mr. Burnham was elected by the Republicans Lieutenant-Governor of the State and *ex-officio* President of the Senate; over the deliberations of which body he presided with so much dignity and talent as to give him greater popularity and distinction throughout the State. In 1858 he was again elected to the Legislature from his native town, and in the organization of the House he was chosen Speaker. His difficult and delicate duties as presiding officer of each branch of the State Legislature were so impartially and so courteously administered as to win the admiration and respect of the members of both Houses. His talent as a presiding officer appeared most brilliant while Speaker of the House, and drew from all parties, from rivals as well as friends, the highest commendations of the ability with which he had managed the grave responsibilities devolving upon him; and when his labors as Speaker terminated he was made the recipient of substantial and flattering testimonials of the good will and admiration which he had won from his colleagues.

In 1859, after a hotly contested and, by some of his opponents, unfairly conducted campaign, he was elected Representative to the Thirty-sixth Congress from the Third District of Connecticut, by a plurality of about six hundred, and in 1861 was re-elected to the Thirty-seventh Congress by a plurality of over twenty-two hundred.

It is not strange that he who had so often and so long served his fellow-citizens in offices of honor and importance at home should continue faithfully and acceptably to represent the people who had entrusted to him the custody of their rights and interests in the National Legislature. He has stood unflinchingly by the principles upon which his election had been so successfully achieved, and has, in Congress, opposed fearlessly, on all occasions, any further concession to the slave power. His zeal for the dispatch of the public business is unremitting, but ill-health has compelled him to be absent from his seat a part of time during the present Congress. He is a thoughtful speaker, of convincing manner; his words are uttered with deliberation, but with effect, and he is ranked among the best lawyers of the State.

As a man, we need hardly go beyond the judgment of his fellow-citizens, who could see in his private character integrity and virtue worthy of the highest trusts they could bestow. A blameless public life will bear witness to the purity of his motives, and the hosts of firm friends he has drawn to him at every time of his busy life show the attraction of a kind heart and agreeable manners. By good sense, perseverance, and sobriety, seconded by honest toil of hands and head, he has risen to eminence in his native State, and won by his talent and his worth many of the highest honors she has to bestow upon the most worthy of her sons.

JAMES H. CAMPBELL,

OF PENNSYLVANIA,

was born at Williamsport, Lycoming County, in that State, on the 8th of February, 1820. His father was a leading member of the bar of that place. The subject of our sketch was educated to the bar, and admitted to the practice of the law in August, 1841, having graduated at the Law School in Carlisle in 1841. He rose rapidly in his profession, and having located in Schuylkill County, Pennsylvania, secured a large and lucrative practice, and for twenty years of professional life always ranked among the prominent men at the bar. In 1843 he married Juliet H. L. Lewis, a lady of rare poetical ability, daughter of Hon. Ellis Lewis, the Chief Justice of Pennsylvania. In 1844, Mr. Campbell represented his Congressional District in the Whig Convention of that year, and voted to place the lamented Clay in nomina-

tion, and was one of his most active and warmest supporters. In October, 1854, although living in a district largely Democratic, Mr. Campbell was elected as a Whig member to the XXXIVth Congress, and supported Mr. Banks, of Massachusetts, for Speaker of the House. Taking an active part in the contest upon the election of that gentleman, Mr. Campbell, although a new member, and among the youngest men in the body, was placed upon the Committee of Ways and Means.

In 1858, Mr. Campbell was again triumphantly elected to the House of Representatives, and took an active and leading part in opposition to the measures of Mr. Buchanan's Administration in the attempt to extend slavery to Kansas and throughout the Territories of the United States. In 1860, his speech in opposition to the Crittenden Compromise placed him among the leading men of the House. In the same year he represented his State on the Committee of Thirty-three, of which the Hon. Thomas Corwin, of Ohio, was Chairman. In 1860 he carried his district, although strongly Democratic, in an even contest, and after a severe struggle, by a handsome majority. His vote has always steadily increased. Thus, in his first election, he was elected by four thousand three hundred votes, while the third time he received over ten thousand.

A warm and uncompromising friend of the Union, he left his home on the 17th of April, 1861, to assist in the defence of the National Capital, and passing through the mob of Baltimore on the 19th of April, 1861, he reached the city the same day, and immediately enlisted as a private in the battalion commanded by the Hon. Cassius M. Clay, and was engaged in active duty until the command was disbanded. On the 1st of May, 1861, he was elected to a Majorship in the Twenty-fifth Regiment of Pennsylvania Volunteers, Colonel Henry L. Cabe, in the three months' service. He accepted the position, and was engaged in active duties during his term of service. Resuming his seat in the House, he was placed at the head of the Select Committee on the Pacific Railroad. He reported a bill, which has since become a law, and, by his tact, ability, and personal popularity, carried that great measure to a most successful conclusion. Mr. Campbell is an ardent Union man, and quite up to the progress of the age in which he lives. Having faith in the perpetuity of our free institutions, he legislates for the future greatness of the Republic.

FREDERICK A. PIKE.

MR. PIKE represents the extreme north-eastern Congressional District of our "glorious Union," certainly is a "Down-Easter," and the sunrise country need not a bit be ashamed of her representative. Frederick A. Pike is one of the strong men of New England, and though now serving his *first* term in Congress, it will prove very far from being his *last*. It would seem that the time had come when a prophet may have honor in his own country, for Mr. Pike was born and has always lived in the district he represents. He was born in Calais, one of the smartest of the far Down-East towns, in the year 1817. He was elected to the State Legislature in the year 1857, re-elected the two following years, and the latter year chosen Speaker of the House. In early life he was an active member of the Whig party, but since 1854 has been an "irrepressible Republican." Mr. Pike represents what was formerly regarded as a "close district," but such is his personal strength with the people who have known him from childhood, that his majority was more than sixteen hundred. Being a business-man upon the frontier, Mr. Pike is familiar with all questions of international trade and intercourse, and his recent exhaustive and masterly speech on "The Commercial Relations of the United States with the Provinces," has commanded attention on both sides of the line. He also, during the present session, made an able speech on the finances of the country. In person he is full and sturdy, with a square front, raven black hair, with full whiskers, a sedate and thoughtful face; and, whether you look down upon him from the galleries, as he sits in his place in the House, or meet him as he slowly walks the Avenue, you can but recognize the assurances that he is a MAN.

OWEN LOVEJOY.

HERE comes one of the Roundheads of Reform;—a very Vandal in the cause of Human Rights. Metaphorically speaking, he "hits straight from the shoulder," with a quick nerve and a tough extensor, that would have rejoiced the renowned and lamented William Poole. He believes primarily in Lovejoy; and has no faith whatever in the thin-skinned, rose-water Reformers, in Church or State, who talk sweet to oily villains in power, and pad with cotton the sharp knuckles of

resistance ; who throw grass-tufts at the "old fellow in black," and affectionately commend the universe to moral suasion ; who believe that the good will crowd all the bad out of the world by its vigorous growth, and that the millennium will certainly come, if they swing on the gate, suck their respectable thumbs, and wait for it. Here comes the Joshua of the prairies, swinging a keen blade through the startled States, smiting down iniquity, and causing hoary wrongs to cry out. Of course he shocks the sentimentalists of Reform, who have spasms of brotherly love surpassing the love of David and Jonathan, and who insist on caressing the world into righteousness, and killing all villainy by *hugging* it to death. No wonder these call him iconoclast and incendiary. Lovejoy is a minister ; but he never preaches off into the air. He is an ambassador of the Prince of Peace ; but he was born into the world with both fists doubled-up, and his indignation is none the weaker for being "righteous," nor his good pugilism none the feebler for being consecrated. He is always ready to spring to the side of the poor and weak in any guise—not as a soft-hearted Quaker, but as a champion with gauntlets on ;—

" Preaching brotherly love, and then driving it in
To the brain of the tough old Goliath of sin ;
Ever shouting and striking in front of the war,
And hitting his foes with the mallet of Thor."

All this metaphysically and morally, of course ; for, though he is as brave in muscle as he is in spirit, and though often threatened, he has seldom been personally assailed, or obliged to use his "ready right" in self-defence.

Owen Lovejoy was born in Albion, Kennebec County, Maine, about 1811 or 1812. His father was a clergyman, and owned a farm on which young Owen worked till he was eighteen—going to school, meantime, for the usual winter three months that belong to New England boys. He then spent a short time at "the Academy," when he struck for Bowdoin College—where, by alternately teaching and studying, he succeeded in graduating, paying his entire expenses. In the fall of 1836, feeling the narrowness of opportunity permitted to the youth of the Eastern States, he went to Alton, Ill., where his brother, Elijah P. Lovejoy, then edited a religious newspaper. Here he studied theology, until the infamous murder of his brother for his Abolition principles, by a Slavery mob, in the fall of 1837. The speech of calm fidelity and Christian firmness, made by the martyr before his sacrifice—full of the soul of O'Connell and Robert

Emmett, and of the spirit which has since rendered John Brown immortal upon earth, seems to have sunk like a shaft of inspiration into the receptive life of Owen Lovejoy, and given him a defiance, a devotion, and a patience in the midst of peril, which have made him illustrious in this generation. After preparing the memoir of his murdered brother, he settled as Pastor of the Congregational Church at Princeton, Ill., where he still resides. He retained the pastorship of the Church until 1854—having been, in the mean time, frequently arraigned before magistrates, on charges growing out of his anti-slavery utterances; and, in consequence of his aid to the oppressed, was indicted for “feeding, clothing, and comforting” alleged fugitives. In 1854 he was elected to the State Legislature, and voted for Abraham Lincoln, as his first choice for United States Senator. Here his efficiency and value were recognized, for in 1856 he was elected to Congress, after a laborious canvass, from the Third District, by about one thousand majority; again in 1858, by an increased vote; and to the present Congress, in 1860, BY A MAJORITY OF TWELVE THOUSAND!

In appearance he “looks more like a plowman than priest,”—very little indeed like a romantic cavalier of romantic Spain; not five feet ten; large-limbed, rough-handed, broad though genial-faced, with a huge and well-made head, wide in the region of Force, and high in the intellectual-moral parts, and a stock of chestnut hair flung loosely over it. His eye is fine, and the entire expression attractive.

Mr. Lovejoy is one of the strongest stump-speakers in the West; analytical and powerful in argument, quick and witty in repartee, tender in pathos, and terrible in invective. He has a good deal of that personal enthusiasm of manner which attracts multitudes of men, and holds them willing listeners. He is gregarious; loves to be with the crowd—and the crowd reciprocates the compliment. He hates cant; but the religious element is preponderant in his discourses; and Slavery—that beast of the jungles—feels his longest and strongest shafts. Slave-breeders behold him with terror, and hear him with rage; while, everywhere, the negroes hold up their manacled wrists to him. The former remember him as one of the “Original Jacobs” of Abolition; the latter know him as a man brave enough to be advertized and pointed at as a friend of the friendless—an advocate for a black and outlawed client—always seeking to smite to earth not only the rod, but the oppressor who wields it, and to raise the despised Helots of our land into the “stature and heritage of men.”

Lovejoy is the Cheever of Legislation, except that in his life the “milk of human kindness” is not soured by hostile thunders. He is

the Anti-Slavery man of the American Forum; more elaborate and prolific than Potter, if not more earnest; more fierce than Julian, if not more eloquent; more persistent than Sumner, if not so classical and chaste. His speeches on "The Barbarism of Slavery," "The Theory of Property in Man," "The Crimes of the Democratic Party" (in 1859), and others equally radical, already hold a high place in American literature. Some of the paragraphs are hardly surpassed in all the annals of eloquence. He never fails to stir up the friends of Slavery; and, on more than one occasion, has been assailed with infernal malignity on the floor of Congress, but his defiance and composure have never failed to bring him triumphantly through.

In legislation he is industrious and active, and never forgets his State, or her needs. Always vigilant, he seldom by absence loses a vote. Always brave, he never dodged one. Always constant to his best convictions, he could not be brought to make that vote a mean or unjust one by the bribe of a Senatorship. Approbativeness, large—a phrenologist would say; hence he loves to be with the majority; Conscience, larger—hence he would much rather have the majority *with him*; and does not falter if obliged to stand alone on the right side. Those who have "felt the halter draw," have no good opinion of him. Tyrants and Indifferentists call him a "Man of one Idea." But, in an era when the Press is debauched, the Pulpit prostituted and palsied, and Law chained a captive to the car of the Southern Dagon—when the whole proud Saxon race in America seems to have conspired to hate, abuse, and rob four million innocent men and women—leal hearts will honor the few heroes who firmly stood with God and the Right, sacrificing friends, property, fame—accepting contumely, persecution, death—if so be that justice might be done. Cheers for the snubbed Schoolmasters of the Republic!—thanks that some of them abide with us to-day. "The road of Regeneration is macadamized with the skulls of martyrs." Owen Lovejoy was born too soon, perhaps; but he came at the right time to see in half a century five hundred years of growth.

JOHN W. CRISFIELD.

THERE is no class of public men more entitled to our consideration and highest commendation than those loyal delegates from the Border States who have sealed their fidelity to the cause of Union by such painful sacrifices—who have stood up, breasting the strong tide of

mutinous opinion which threatened every moment to bear them down—and this at the risk of life and property. We owe, and posterity owes to these men, so hardly tried, the fullest and most enthusiastic appreciation of their loyalty and steadfastness, in these times that try men's souls. Not upon us, but upon them falls the chief part of the suffering in which this rebellion is so fruitful.

John W. Crisfield, one of the most prominent and energetic of the public men of his State, has been, during the struggle between Secession and Unionism in Maryland, the strong man of the Union party in his district, around whom the loyal men of the district have rallied. The integrity, the moderation, the sterling loyalty of his course in the House have secured for him the respect and confidence, not only of friends, but of the opposite party. Very quiet in manners and deportment, a deep thinker and a hard worker, ever mindful of the interests of his people, his dignified, reticent, and conscientious course is in strong contrast to the noisy, brawling, swaggering bluster, which is unfortunately too much patronized by men in the House, whose talents are really too fine to be thus disfigured by self-consciousness and *priggishness*.

Mr. Crisfield was born in Kent County, Maryland, on the 6th of November, 1808, and was educated at Washington College, Chestertown. In 1828 he began the study of law in the office of a relative, Henry Page, a gentleman of fine talents and great success in his profession. He was admitted to the bar in 1830, and in 1832 commenced the practice of his profession in Princess Anne, Somerset County, Maryland; and has ever since resided at that place, following his avocation with quiet industry and success, excepting those intervals in which he has been employed in filling public engagements. He very early manifested a deep interest in and a decided talent for political pursuits. He was enthusiastically attached to the opinions and theories of Mr. Webster, which he generally adopted, and that great man was his ideal of a statesman. In particular he indorsed Mr. Webster's views of the theory and constitutional power of the National Government.

In 1836 the people of his district showed their appreciation of his worth and ability by electing him a member of the Legislature of Maryland, and he was implicated in the constitutional changes enacted by that body. In 1840 he ardently used his influence in forwarding the election of General Harrison to the Presidency. He opposed the annexation of Texas and the Mexican war. In 1847 he passed his first term in Congress. In 1850 he was sent by his constituents to

the Convention called to alter and amend the Constitution of Maryland. In 1855 he took ground against the Know-Nothing party, and opposed this young sprout of treason with all his characteristic energy and determination. In 1856, to prevent the election of Fremont, he supported Buchanan, in common with the vast majority of loyal men whom that political weathercock so bitterly disappointed. In 1860 he took no active part in the Presidential campaign, but voted for Breckinridge, the man who was then so eloquent a patriot—the man upon whom Baker's scathing eloquence had not then set the mark of Cain—whom the foul leprosy of treason had not yet disfigured and rendered an object of loathing to every loyal man. In 1861 he was appointed a member of the Peace Congress which assembled in Washington at the invitation of Virginia, and he took an active part in the proceedings of that body. He was elected to his seat in the present Congress by the hearty and united support of the Union element throughout his district, and has been singularly disinterested in his forgetfulness of all private interests in his devotion to the cause of Union and the interests of his constituents.

In this brief record we have summed up a life of manly industry and political integrity—the life of an emphatically popular public man, and one who has deserved to be so. Mr. Crisfield is a man who makes as little noise as possible about what he intends to do; but if his political life has not been so marked by startling episodes as that of some other members, yet, pursuing the quiet and even tenor of his way, he has won for himself the steadfast and cordial regard of all who know him, and an enduring popularity among his constituents. It is impossible to look into his benevolent eyes, surmounted by a powerful brow, and not feel that he is a man to be trusted. He is a member of the Committee on Public Lands.

ROBERT MALLORY,

OF KENTUCKY.

MR. MALLORY, who is distinguished by his handsome and pleasing face, his fine physical development, and hearty and robust temperament, represents the Louisville District, comprising the counties of Jefferson, Henry, Oldham, and Shelby. This district is one of the richest and most important, as well as most loyal portions of Kentucky. By most loyal, I mean that it was perhaps freest of the seces-

sion virus which made a great portion of the population mad at the beginning of the rebellion; for although the notorious *Louisville Courier* (afterwards transformed into the *Bowling Green, Nashville, &c., &c., &c., Courier*, as it made its Parthian retreat southward into thin air) was centered here with its malignant atmosphere of treason, in Louisville, the "Journal" (with George D. Prentice the moulder and propeller of its hot shot) was a tower of strength, "four-square to all the winds that blew," and together with the *Democrat*, which, under John H. Harney, one of the ablest of Western editors, and staunchest friend of Douglas while he lived, leavened the public mind with loyalty to "the Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws," under Abraham Lincoln.

Mr. Mallory is a native of Madison County, Virginia, where he was born November 15th, 1815, and completed his education (after having been a pupil of John Bruce, a fine classical scholar and graduate of Edinburgh in Winchester) at the University of Virginia, in 1838, obtaining a license to practice law during the following year, when he moved to Kentucky, and established himself at New Castle, the charming little county seat of Henry County, where he subsequently married. Though successful as a lawyer, Mr. M. had the genuine Kentucky appreciation of rural life, and soon after his marriage retired from his profession to a farm near New Castle, whence, of course, he made occasional guerrilla incursions into politics, taking the stump as naturally as he would to the saddle of a fine spirited horse of the Morgan extraction; for he is essentially a healthy and hearty man, knowing and appreciating only the Epicurean side of politics, the motto of which is, I believe, "Live while you *run*," and not "*Run* while you live"—a more Southern ideal. Mr. Mallory always devoted himself, while in private life, to the agricultural interests of his section, and was for ten years President of the Union Agricultural and Mechanical Association of Eminence, Ky. He was first elected to Congress in 1859, and in 1861 made his race against the secession forces with a success of which he may well be proud, leaving his competitor behind him eight thousand two hundred votes. The contest was an exciting one; our first battles were raging in Western Virginia and at Great Bethel, while the Kentucky campaign was progressing. Mr. Mallory and his friends were indefatigable. The "tads," as the hesitating and conditional Union men were pleasantly denominated, sat on the fence quietly, while Humphrey Marshall, Governor Morehead & Co. filled the air with their hot gospel. But the true friends of Kentucky and of

their country leagued together in impregnable phalanx, with Mallory at their head, and were victorious.

Mr. Mallory's course since then is patent. Adhering to the temporal interests of his constituents, as far as might be, he has been known among the most unhesitatingly loyal and true of the Border State men, desiring no condition hostile to his country's welfare, and willing to sacrifice all others, if necessary, for it. I would give Mr. Mallory my vote, if I had to vote in Kentucky, without bribery, for I like him as a man. I have heard him make speeches in green courthouse yards, and with his audience of men and "trees as men walking," I was a willing listener. In company with Prentice and others of his friends, I have seen and heard how pleasant a companion he could be. He touches popular sympathy at all points and receives the plaudits of the people, and is one of their best voices in Kentucky.

HIRAM P. BENNETT,

REPRESENTATIVE FROM COLORADO TERRITORY.

HERE we have a real out-and-out Western man, and a fine specimen he is, too. Tall, muscular, fair haired, blue eyed, with pleasant but determined features, and altogether a most personable and pleasing individual. We claim him as a representative-man of the West, although he was born in Maine, September 2, 1826, for his parents shortly thereafter emigrated to Missouri. At twenty years of age, with money he himself had earned, he went to Central College, Ohio, and thence to the Ohio Wesleyan University, and obtained a fair education. He was obliged to abandon his studies on account of impaired health, in 1849, went home to Missouri and taught school for two years, studying law in the mean time. He was admitted to the bar in May, 1850, and emigrated in 1851 to Mills County, Iowa. Practiced law there. In 1852 he was elected County Judge of Mills County. In 1854, went to Nebraska Territory, and was elected to the first session of the Legislature in that Territory. In 1855 he was candidate for Delegate to Congress from Nebraska, against Bird B. Chapman, and, although fairly elected—being opposed to the Democratic rule—through the corruptions of the canvassers lost the certificate of election, and his opponent held the seat.

He was elected again to the Legislature of Nebraska Territory in 1858, and was chosen Speaker of the House.

In 1856 he was a member of the Republican Convention at Philadelphia, and has acted with the Republican party since. He is a warm supporter of Mr. Lincoln's administration.

In 1859 he emigrated to Colorado; practiced law there and took part with the law and order party in suppressing crime, prior to the organization of said Territory by act of Congress.

He married Miss Sarah McCabe in 1852.

He has made no speech this session—is a working member, *not* as *yet* a talking member. He has introduced and obtained the passage of a law establishing a Branch U. S. Mint for coinage of gold in Colorado Territory, the first mint ever established in a Territory of the United States.

JOHN HUTCHINS.

"WHEN I was here last," said a friend to me, as we stood in the galleries together, "that seat yonder was occupied by our unflinching Joshua of Freedom, now resting his aged body and weary brain—Giddings, 'the old man militant.' Who is that at the desk now?"

It was his successor, John Hutchins, from the 21st District, Ohio. He is a gravish-looking man of fifty; hair flecked faintly with silver; thin face; deep gray eyes, keen as a falchion, and a sharp edge of perceptives, jutting like a cornice over them. He was born in Trumbull County, Ohio, of Connecticut parents, who had come out early and settled on the tempting Reserve. His education was limited in boyhood—the old story of the hard tussle between poverty and ambition, in which poverty is always worsted; common schools a little while; then "taught winters" and studied summers up into the classics; then a few months at the Western Reserve College; then out again, and studying law with the present Gov. Todd; admitted to the bar in 1838, and entered into law partnership with Todd & Hoffman. He was a Democrat till 1842; then a "Liberty Party man," voting for Hale and Julian; since, a Republican. In 1849 he was elected to the Legislature, and, while a member, helped to defeat the project for the division of Hamilton County, making an exhaustive legal argument against it, which excited much attention throughout the State. The measure was defeated; the Democrats and a few Liberty Men

and Whigs coalesced on the strength of the victory, and achieved another and more important triumph in electing to the U. S. Senate that admirable statesman, who is now the Brain and Soul of the Cabinet—Salmon P. Chase. In 1859 Mr. Hutchins was elected to the XXXVIth Congress by a large majority, and in 1861 was renominated by acclamation, and re-elected by an increased vote. His speech, "Freedom against Slavery," in 1859-'60, attracted much notice and commendation; and he made a valuable speech last May on Postal Affairs, very elaborate in statistics and details. He is bold and sarcastic in debate, and uncompromising in action, and his influence is always cast against the oppressor, and to secure the protection and comfort of the poor weak who "have none to help them." Ohio need not employ any spy to watch the votes of John Hutchins.

FERNANDO C. BEAMAN,

OF MICHIGAN.

THIS gentleman, who, in point of intellectual capacity and legislative ability, stands at the head of the Michigan delegation in the House of Representatives, was born in the village of Chester, Windsor County, Vermont, on the 28th day of June, 1814. At the age of five, he removed with his parents to Franklin County, New York, where he remained till 1836, acquiring meantime as thorough an education as was afforded by the district schools and the Franklin Academy. In 1836, being then twenty-two years of age, he removed to Rochester, in the same State, and entered upon the study of the law. In 1838 he emigrated to Michigan, where, after pursuing his legal studies for another year, he was admitted to the bar, and commenced the practice of his profession, which he has since followed with a great degree of success, having acquired the reputation of being one of the ablest lawyers in the State. It was in his office, at Adrian, Michigan, that Hon. Bradley F. Granger, the present Representative from the Detroit district, first commenced his legal studies.

Mr. Beaman has been from time to time elected to various municipal and county offices, all of which he filled to the satisfaction of all concerned—so much so, indeed, that the people whom he served soon singled him out as one whose talents and abilities were worthy of a much higher sphere of action; and after having received a very flattering vote

at several previous Congressional nominating conventions—at one of which, in 1858, he came very near succeeding—he was, in 1860, nominated and elected to Congress, distancing his Democratic competitor, S. C. Coffinsberry, in the contest before the people, by a majority of about six thousand five hundred, running ahead of the Republican Electoral ticket some three hundred votes—a most gratifying evidence of his great personal popularity.

Politically a Democrat until 1854, on the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, Mr. Beaman abandoned the party in disgust; and from that time he has devoted his whole energies to the advancement of the Republican cause. He is no halfway man—no compromising “trimmer;” but possessing a firm belief in the righteousness of the principles he advocates, he stands up for them boldly and squarely, and is always ready to follow them to their legitimate conclusions. Few men carry into their political life so large a share of *conscientiousness* as he. A total disbeliever in the miserable, degrading maxim that “all is fair in politics,” he will resort to no means to secure a partisan or personal triumph, nor commit himself to the support of any measure, of the perfect fairness and justice of which he is not fully convinced.

As a speaker he is clear, terse, and logical; always taking a plain, common-sense view of his subject, stating his premises plainly and luminously, and driving home his conclusions with a few well-directed blows which never fail to hit the nail on the head;—for proof of which assertions we have only to refer to the two speeches delivered by him during the present session—one on “Provisional Governments for the Rebel States,” and the other on the “Confiscation of Rebel Property.”

In person, Mr. Beaman is tall, straight, and well-proportioned, with dark hair and beard, both slightly touched with silver, and deep, penetrating eyes. He possesses a pleasing voice and excellent address; is frank, cordial, open-hearted, and affectionate in his intercourse with his friends; and, as Mrs. B. would probably tell you, a most excellent husband and father.

A. J. CLEMENTS,

OF TENNESSEE.

DR. CLEMENTS is a young man—the youngest member, I believe, of the present House; but he has shown himself possessed of an indomitable will and an adventurous daring, which, united with ability, will enable him to make his mark. Mr. Clements and the other members of his family—a sister and two young brothers—have been among the most sorely persecuted of the refugees from Tennessee. Like Maynard's and Johnson's families, they have been turned out of doors, and were obliged to fly for their lives, and have lost all their personal property on account of their devotion to the Union cause. Dr. Clements is a physician by profession, but half a farmer too, and, until the present troubles commenced, had lived quietly on his farm, among the mountains of Tennessee, in the practice of his profession. His strong Union proclivities and marked ability made him a rallying point for the Union men of the neighborhood, and intensely obnoxious to the secessionists. On the first Thursday of August last he was elected as the Union candidate to represent the Fourth Congressional District of Tennessee in the XXXVIIth Congress, greatly to the chagrin of his secession opponents, who became enraged and sought to capture him. He was compelled to fly; and up to the time of his taking his seat in Congress he served as a surgeon in the Nineteenth Regiment of Kentucky Volunteers. He has not been in Tennessee since his election; but recent events have made it possible for loyal men to live and breathe there; and such, we hope, will soon be the case in every State.

[Mr. Colfax, of Indiana, very kindly furnished the following excellent biographical fragment:]

WILLIAM MCKEE DUNN,

OF INDIANA,

is a native of that State, now serving his second term in Congress, and is about forty-five years of age. He is of medium height, fair complexion, brown hair, and gray eyes.

Mr. Dunn was born on the very frontier of emigration. With

the exception of Vincennes and a few other isolated French posts in the farther West, his home, at the time of his birth, was one of the advanced outposts of American civilization, where the pioneer and the Indian formed the entire community. He has resided there ever since, growing up with the people he now represents. Indeed, his is one of the rare cases, and especially rare in the West, where a member of Congress represents his birthplace; and is an exception to the general rule that "a prophet has no honor in his own country."

He graduated at the State University of Bloomington, Indiana, and soon after commenced the practice of the law at Madison, where he still resides.

In 1848 he was elected to the State Legislature; and in 1850, became a member of the Constitutional Convention which framed the new Constitution of Indiana. In this body, composed of the most distinguished men of the State, nearly all of whom have since then been prominent in the politics or the learned professions of the country, he took a leading position from the outset; and though politically in the minority, was one of its most influential members.

In 1858 Mr. Dunn was first elected to Congress, and in 1860 was re-elected by large majorities, although his district is very close in its political divisions, and its preponderance generally against the party with which he is associated. In the present Congress he is chairman of the important Committee on Patents; and also an active member of the Committee on Military Affairs. He is in politics a Republican, with decided conservative tendencies.

As a speaker, Mr. Dunn is earnest and forcible. Without attempting the adornments of rhetoric, he strikes home at the very issue presented in the frankest and most emphatic manner; is eminently successful in securing the passage of the many bills he reports from the committee of which he is a member, and is one of those industrious Congressmen who are always seen at work at their seats during the sessions of the House, or at their Committee Rooms or the Departments when the House is not in session.

EDWARD H. ROLLINS.

MR. ROLLINS is one of that class of citizens, of whom it were well for the country if we had more of them in Congress—experienced and successful business men. *Talk* is valuable when it is the utterance of grand ideas: silver-lipped eloquence is almost worthy of wor-

ship ; but men who can only talk, idle talkers, mere tinkling cymbals, are often preferred for Congressional delegates ; and this while we are eminently a business people. We are a young nation, in the process of development, with the broadest of fields, and richest of mines, and longest of rivers, to cultivate, and work, and navigate ; with schools to plant, and asylums to endow, and States to build, and railroads to stretch across a continent, and steamers to iron-clad ; and yet we fill our legislative halls with *talkers* rather than *workers* ; with *theorizers* rather than with the men who have "*been and done it.*" But the capital district of New Hampshire for once has passed by its lawyers, professional talkers, and "sent to Congress," in the person of EDWARD H. ROLLINS, one of its enterprising and successful merchants. Nevertheless, Mr. R., though especially known as a "*doer of the word,*" can talk, and to the purpose, if there arises absolute occasion, as witness his able speech on the District Emancipation Bill, while his occasional speeches in the political campaigns have been regarded by men of all parties as of a high order.

The gentleman has carried his peculiar business habits into his political life, and for years, as Chairman of the Republican State Committee of his State, and before that, in the days of the old Whig party, while occupying a prominent position on their Committee Board, has been regarded as the cleverest political *worker* of New England,—clever, we mean, in the full English sense. He is one of those political Napoleons, of whom it may truthfully be said, that they are able to organize victories without leaving their committee rooms. And the gentleman also carries the same sharp foresight, and close and sagacious industry into his legislative life ; always in his seat, attentive to the business, thoroughly posted, and ready with his emphatic *Aye!* for the measure that promises the speediest downfall to the Rebellion, the most certain damnation to its authors, and the surest safety to the Republic. Mr. Rollins is always found voting for the most decided and advanced measures of his party, and this from no blind party zeal, but because he *believes*, as a patriot and a man, in the principles of his party, and works in a party for the *purpose* of translating those principles into the living action of the country.

Mr. Rollins is a member of the Standing Committee of the House upon Accounts, and also of the Committee upon the District of Columbia—this latter one of the most important and laborious of all the standing committees ; and, while it is one of the strongest com-

mittees of the House, still we do no gentleman injustice when we say it has no more efficient member than Mr. R.

In 1855, Mr. Rollins was one of the representatives of his city, the capital of the State, in the popular branch of the New Hampshire Legislature, to which position he was honored with re-elections for the two succeeding years, and both years promoted by that body to its speakership, discharging its duties with eminent acceptance. Mr. Rollins is a native of the State he so well represents, born in the year 1824, and hence is one of the *young* men of the House. He is of snug and tidy person, rather slender, moves promptly and with the decision of a calm self-possession, eyes and hair, with full whiskers, of raven blackness, and about the lines of his thoughtful face lurk the tell-tales of his kind and genial nature. As the subject of our sketch is a *young* man, perhaps we should add the fact, that he would most decidedly be recognized as among the handsome men of the House.

JOHN P. C. SHANKS.

THAT sunny-haired young man, with full locks and unshaven face, of tall stature (more than six feet), rather slender, yet square-shouldered and erect, with a clear blue eye, and sharp, well-chiseled features—that young man who occupies one of the front desks of the House on the Republican side, and who looks and moves with such an air of downright frank and genuine chivalry, is Col. JOHN P. C. SHANKS, Representative of the eleventh Congressional District of Indiana, a native of Berkley County, Virginia, where he was born June 17, 1826—a good day for an American to start on—but whether born of one of the “First” or of the “Second” Families we know not, but not of the F. F. V.s, we guess, for just thirteen years after, in that pleasant month of June, we find the father removing with his family to the free State of Indiana, where the subject of our brief sketch, with his own energies, has hewed his way to usefulness and honor. His profession is that of the law, and in all the courts of his State young Shanks has already achieved an enviable professional reputation. In 1853 he was elected to the State Legislature, where he served for two years with marked credit to himself and his constituents. In 1860, by a very large majority, he was elected to Congress. Taking his seat at the extra session of July 4, 1861, he at once made himself known as one of the most zealous supporters of all measures for the

vigorous prosecution of the war. At the famous battle of Bull Run, Shanks went into the fight, not as a spectator, as did many of the members of Congress and citizens of Washington, but as a soldier in the ranks of the famous and gallant New York 69th (the Irish Regiment), and with that brave regiment, under the lead of the fearless Corcoran, was five hours under the heaviest fire of that terrific day. On the adjournment of Congress, in August, he at once repaired to General Fremont, on whose staff he had been appointed, and with whom he gallantly served until General Fremont was relieved of his command, and whom he as gallantly defended in his place in the House, in his memorable speech of the 4th of March, 1862.

Colonel Shanks is one of those who believe that the rebels should pay a part of the cost of the war, and so every time votes for the confiscation of the property of rebels and the freeing of their slaves. He also heartily supported the bills for the abolition of slavery in the national capital, and its eternal prohibition in the Territories.

Colonel Shanks seems to belong to a fighting family, for his grandfather bore a conspicuous part in the Revolutionary War, serving for six years under Washington and Wayne, while his father was in the war of 1812, and a brother served in the Mexican war. Patriotism must have a healthy glow in the blood of this family, and it was the casual remark of the subject of this sketch, when speaking of the obligations of citizens to their country, "that when a man has given his property and his life for his country, he has only and simply done his duty."

JOHN P. C. SHANKS is a man of untiring energy, of fine native powers, of a chivalric spirit, and as true to his country, and liberty, and justice, and progress as the needle to the pole, and ready always to defend them by tongue or sword, as the occasion may demand. He is but upon the threshold of his manhood, and is destined to play a conspicuous as well as noble part in the nation's great future.

JOHN A. BINGHAM.

JOHN A. BINGHAM is the *sharp* man of the House—keener in the defense of his principles and his party than any Damascus blade, and if possible twice as keen in rebuke or attack. He is often spoken of as "*the ablest* man of the House;" but men differ in their relative

estimate of intellectual qualities, some paying the chief homage to brilliancy, wit, and silver-tipped eloquence, while others give greater reverence to solid strength—to the men of broad and comprehensive thought—and still others reserve their admiration for the swordsmen who deal in the unrelenting logic that divides bone and marrow : but all agree that John A. Bingham is the *sharpest debater* of the present House. Mr. Bingham represents the Twenty-first Congressional District of Ohio, and so popular is he at home that he is now serving his fourth term—always returned by large majorities ; and if his constituents of like political faith are wise, they will send him yet four terms more.

John A. Bingham is a Republican, his opponents would say, of the "extreme school," while his friends speak of him as "one who is always true and reliable." He is an out-spoken, decided man, "thorough-going" in his obedience to his own convictions of right and duty; not a doubter and hesitater, but always firm in some faith, and always ready with a reason therefor. He is a man who hews square up to the chalk-line.

In person Mr. Bingham is rather slight, of fair complexion, with light brown hair, of quiet manners, rather reserved, and in the prime of his years, being forty-six; was born in the honest old State of Pennsylvania, and we rather guess in a Quaker neighborhood. By profession he is a lawyer, and so clear and able a one that everybody approves the judgment of Mr. Speaker Grow in placing him at the head of the Judiciary Committee of the present Congress.

ABRAHAM B. OLIN,

OF TROY,

represents the Thirteenth Congressional District of New York, which is also Rensselaer County. He was formerly Recorder of the city of Troy, and was a member, if my memory serves me rightly, of the XXXIVth and the XXXVIth Congresses. The legislative mantle was bequeathed to him by his father, who also served in Congress in his day; and he also had a cousin in Congress, making three of the name of Olin who have evinced decided legislative talent. Mr. Olin is a member of the House Military Committee; a clear reasoner and a forcible speaker, and a most popular man in the House. I formed

a high opinion of his nobleness and generous patriotism from his speech on the Emancipation Bill—especially in the closing portions, where he paid an eloquent, generous, and well-earned tribute to the loyalty of the Union men of the South. I think I shall never forget what he said in this connection, and I regret it is not in my power to quote correctly his remarks on this subject.

REUBEN E. FENTON.

I TAKE peculiar pleasure in presenting some facts in connection with Mr. Fenton, one of the leading members of the House. His life has been a busy one, and full of incidents. In the House he is a great favorite, on account of his amiability and suave temperament. He has a peculiar way of making the most disagreeable things lose something of their harshness by his very gentlemanly and considerate deportment. In my opinion he is one of the handsomest men in the House ; and I think it is impossible to know and not be partial to this pleasant, bright-eyed gentleman. As to his legislative ability, the following record of facts will speak louder than any encomiums from me :

He was born in Carroll, Chautauque County, New York, July 4th, 1819. In 1834 he entered school at College Hill, near Cincinnati, Ohio. In 1836 he became a student at Fredonia Academy, New York, preparatory to his college course. In 1839 he studied law at Jamestown, New York, rather as a branch of education than with professional views. In 1840 he married Miss Jane Frew, of Frewsburg, New York. He then engaged in the mercantile and lumber business, which he pursued for many years, enlarging to a scale of great magnitude, with entire success. In 1841 his wife died. In 1844 he was again married to Miss Elizabeth Scudder. He has three children, all daughters, and still resides at Frewsburg, New York. In 1843 he was elected Supervisor of his native town, Carroll, and remained for eight successive years a member, and three of the last years president of the Board of Supervisors. In 1849 he was the Democratic candidate for member of Assembly in the New York Legislature, opposed by Major Samuel Barrett, the Whig candidate, in a strong Whig region, and defeated by only twenty-one votes. In 1852 he was the Democratic candidate for Congress, and was elected over Hon. G. A. S. Crooker, by fifty-six majority, in a Whig district of three thousand majority ! His radical Democratic and Free-soil

tendencies caused him to disconnect himself from the Democratic organization, upon the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and the attempt to spread slavery into free Territories, during his first term. In 1854 he was a candidate for Congress, but was defeated by Hon. F. S. Edwards, the American candidate, by about fourteen hundred votes, while the American candidate for Governor had over three thousand majority. In 1855 he was president of the first Republican State Convention ever held in New York. He was a delegate to the National Convention held at Philadelphia, at which John C. Fremont was nominated for the Presidency. The same year he was a candidate for election to Congress, and received a majority of over seven thousand. In 1858 he was re-elected by an increased majority. In 1860 he was again elected to Congress by a vote still further increased. He took an active part in the organization of the present Congress, and is chairman of one of the most important committees of the House—the Committee on Claims—and member of two other committees. He has been a constant friend and unwearied in attention to, and labors in behalf of, the soldiers of the Union Army, and in Congress has been an earnest and devoted advocate of every measure that looked to the speedy and honorable termination of the war. His recent speech on the introduction of his bill to indemnify loyal persons, was an earnest and eloquent effort. Alluding to the soldiers engaged in the then recent battles of Yorktown and Williamsburg, he paid the following felicitous tribute :

“The noble army of soldiers from my State, who have given their strong hands, brave hearts, and their blood to uphold the Constitution and sustain the Government, have a right to expect that their Representatives will be earnest in their efforts to enact vigorous measures to punish the authors of this causeless and wicked rebellion.

“The patriotic legions of the State which I have in part the honor to represent, numbering one hundred and twenty thousand of her citizens, from the farms and the workshops, from the trades and the professions, require no herald of their devotion and their sacrifices in the camp and on the battle-field, and need no one here to proclaim that they expect of the Representatives of the people to aid, by the power of the civil authority, in visiting upon the authors and leaders of the revolt, disability, penalty, and punishment.

“The soldiers from my district, embracing about five thousand intelligent and worthy citizens, left the peaceful pursuits of productive industry, the professions and the arts, actuated by the highest motives which can animate the human breast. These men went forth ready to expose themselves to all the hazards of battle, and even to death itself, to defend their country. Some have met the soldier’s last sacrifice on fevered beds in the camp; some on the hard-fought fields of Donelson

and Pittsburg Landing, and more at the recent bloody contests on the peninsula of Virginia. More than one thousand soldiers from my district participated in the unequal fight which resulted in the glorious victories of Yorktown and Williamsburg, and with their heroic comrades are entitled to the highest praise and the deepest gratitude; and yet, sir, that bloody field sent tears and mourning to many a household of my people, and grief and sadness throughout my district, and they will expect that I will do my duty in this representative sphere, co-operating with others in the enactment of measures to punish the traitors and cripple the power and vitality of this rebellion, and to provide, so far as human foresight, with a faithful discharge of duty, will admit, for the peaceful security of our once happy country."

SAMUEL C. FESSENDEN.

MR. FESSENDEN is now serving his first term in the House of Representatives. Though a new man in the National Congress, he is by no means new in the Roman sense, as being the first of his race. His name has long been familiar to the public. His father, Hon. Samuel Fessenden, of Portland, Me., has been for many years a distinguished lawyer, of rare ability and unspotted integrity. In person, too, he has the stamp of nobility. Hon. Wm. P. Fessenden, of the United States Senate, able, terse, and independent, is the oldest of a numerous family of brothers. The subject of this sketch represents the Rockland District, Maine. He was elected at the second sharp contest, by about sixty majority. Mr. Fessenden is now forty-seven years of age—of which twenty-two were passed in childhood and in the reception of his literary education at Bowdoin College, and a theological education at Bangor Seminary; for nearly twenty years he was Pastor of the same church at Rockland, Me. Failing health and political affinities then lead him to the law and to politics. Mr. Fessenden is of medium height, slender in form, of florid complexion, with an oval face and blue eyes. In manners he is graceful and courteous, and the opponent must be very rude who could compel him for a moment to say a harsh word, or do an ungentlemanly act. In debate he is fluent and affluent. He began life as an earnest and zealous laborer in the works of reform and human improvement. If age and experience have abated somewhat of youthful hope, they have taken nothing from the earnestness, sincerity, and zeal of the pursuit. As a specimen of his style and mode of thought, we quote a passage from his speech, delivered January 20, 1862, on the "Issues of the Rebellion":

"SIR: I honor the men of an idea to which they cling with the tenacity of death, as the very life of the Republic; who scorn to run, with bare-headed debasement, the race of popularity; who take not counsel of majorities, but only of truth. These men of the Calhoun idea, that 'Slavery is the most safe and stable basis of public institutions in the world'—who cling to it as the very life of the Republic; *they* do not run the scrub-race of popularity; *they* take not counsel of majorities; I cannot add only of truth. But still I honor them for the fearlessness with which they utter their convictions; in these convictions I believe them to be conscientious. And will they not grant that we are conscientious in the idea that liberty to all, the black as well as the white man, is the life of the Republic? And in the idea of which we cannot be rid, that if Slavery should be terminated by this war, it would be, in the language of Lord Brougham of the great emancipation struggle and victory in England, '*the greatest triumph mortal man ever won over the greatest crime man ever committed!*'"

If life and opportunity serve, Mr. Fessenden will win for himself distinction, and occupy an honorable position among the men of his time; and will go down to posterity upon the record, as a fearless, upright, accomplished gentleman, of pure life and unspotted name.

COL. P. B. FOUKE,

OF ILLINOIS,

has been away fighting the battles of his country, and has not taken his seat in Congress during the present session. But no member of that august body has a better right to a place on the floor of the Hall of Representatives, if we gauge fitness by patriotism, integrity, and ability. Sound to the core on every question affecting the interests of the country; with a grasp as tenacious as death when he once espouses a cause; gifted with remarkable energy and industry, and the power to make himself successfully heard: Col. Fouke's presence in the House this session would have materially enlivened some of its spiritless debates, and perhaps have accelerated the progress of important business; but then we could scarcely have afforded to spare him from the van of our brave army, where he is distinguishing himself by his bravery and singleness of purpose; and the fiery veteran would pine in inglorious ease.

ELIJAH H. NORTON

was born 24th day of November, 1821, in Logan County, Kentucky. Received a good Academic education, in Russellville, Ky.; commenced reading law in the Fall of 1839; graduated in the Law Department of Transylvania University, Lexington, Ky., in March, 1841. Soon afterwards was admitted to the bar, in the county of his nativity. He removed to Missouri in the Fall of 1844, and settled in Platte City, Platte Co., Mo. At the time of his location in that place there were thirty-three lawyers in the county. The bar at that place was one of the ablest in the State. At the time of his location there, he knew but two persons in the county. But he soon obtained a leading practice, and, in 1846, was nominated, as a Democratic candidate, to represent the county in the State Legislature.

This nomination, although his election was a conceded fact, he declined—preferring to devote himself to the pursuits of his profession, rather than engage in the political strife of the day. In May, 1850, he was married to a most estimable and accomplished lady, in the person of Miss Melinda C. Wilson, of Platte County.

In 1852 his name was presented to a Congressional Democratic Convention, for nomination as a candidate for Congress, endorsed by the unanimous voice of his own county; but he withdrew his name as a candidate for Congressional nomination. In the month of August of that year, a vacancy occurring in the Circuit Judgeship for the Twelfth Judicial Circuit, Mo., composed of the counties of Platte, Buchanan, Andrew Holt, Atchison, Nodaway, and Gentry, he was elected to fill it without opposition; the unexpired term being five years. This was one of the largest and most important circuits in the State. In 1857 he was re-elected without opposition, for the term of six years. His re-election without opposition is the best evidence we can furnish of the manner in which the duties of the position were discharged.

In 1860, having received a nomination as a Democratic candidate for Congress, for the present or XXXVIIth Congress, for the Fourth Congressional District of his State, he resigned his judgeship, and became a candidate, and was elected by over five thousand majority over his competitor—carrying his own county by six hundred more votes than his party strength.

When the Legislature, in February, 1861, authorized the election

of delegates to the State Convention, he became a candidate in the district composed of the counties of Clay and Platte. Although the mania of secession was raging like a tempest at that time, he was elected *as a Union delegate, opposed to the secession of the State*, by nearly three thousand majority. His vote is found recorded in the convention, opposed to the secession of Missouri.

And that is the best refutation of the slanders of his enemies, who have charged him with Secession proclivities.

THOMAS L. PRICE

is the present Representative in Congress of the Fifth Congressional District of Missouri. He was born in Caswell County, North Carolina, January 19, 1809. When he was very young, however, his parents removed to Pittsylvania Co., Virginia, where the subject of this sketch resided until the Fall of 1830. In this year he married Miss Bolton, of North Carolina. In the Fall of 1832 he removed to Missouri. He resided for one year in St. Louis, and then located in Jefferson City, the Capital of the State, where he has lived up to the present writing. He became extensively engaged in merchandising and farming after removing to Jefferson City. In the winter of 1838 he contracted for the transportation of the United States Mails in Missouri and Arkansas, and retained the proprietorship of this business for sixteen years. In 1842, in conjunction with Blane, Tompkins, and Barrett, he leased the Missouri Penitentiary for a term of ten years, during which time he was extensively engaged in manufactures of many kinds, produced by the labor of the convicts. May 29, 1849, his wife died, leaving him two children: he was married again, April 25, 1854, to Miss Long, of Page Co., Virginia.

About this time he became the principal contractor for the construction of the Pacific Railroad, from St. Louis to Kansas City, Mo. Under his efficient superintendence, one-third of the road from Franklin to Jefferson City was built, and the whole of the road from Jefferson City to its present terminus, Sedalia. Mr. Price is pre-eminently a first-class business man, active and of untiring energy; systematic in all his arrangements and prompt in all his transactions. During the whole period of his residence in Missouri he has taken an active interest in State and National Politics, and has always been a Democrat of the Benton school. And the writer of this sketch has frequent-

ly heard that great man, Benton, say, that "many men in Missouri, who owed their positions to him, had betrayed him, but that Thomas L. Price was a *true man*. That he never had two faces, but was bold, candid, and sincere; and if your friend, he always stood as true and firm in adversity as in prosperity."

In 1848 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of the State of Missouri, running far ahead of all his competitors on the ticket. He served the State in this position for four years, and was for a part of the time the Acting Governor. He has been frequently elected to the Legislature of Missouri, where he always took a high position.

When the war for the Rebellion was inaugurated, he took a decided stand for Union, and against the Secession movement of that gang of traitors, C. F. Jackson, Sterling Price & Co. He was elected on the Union ticket to a seat in Congress, in the stead of Jno. W. Reed, who was expelled by the House for disloyalty. In Congress, Thomas L. Price takes a firm and commanding position. His habits of industry, his active energy and untiring perseverance, eminently qualify him for the position he now holds; and the writer knows that his district was never more faithfully and ably represented than now. In 1836 he was elected Colonel in the military organization of Missouri; in 1838 he was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general; and in 1840 he was still further promoted to the rank of major-general, which office he held for eight years. On the 21st of September, 1861, he was appointed by President Lincoln to the office of Brigadier-General of the U. S. Army, which appointment was confirmed by the Senate; and he acted in this capacity until his resignation to take his seat in the House. The writer who traces these lines has been intimately acquainted with Thomas L. Price for twenty years; and was one of the Benton Delegation to the Cincinnati Convention, in 1858 (of which Gen. Price was a member), and who produced so much excitement by contending for their rights in that convention. A man of more energy, determination, and loyalty, and one purer of heart than Thomas L. Price, does not occupy a seat in the present Congress.

WILLIAM D. KELLEY.

JUDGE KELLEY is the orator of the House. In possession of a pleasing person, a rich, musical voice, an almost unexampled command of words, brimming with ideas (from his eager sympathy with all the great forward movements of the time), rejoicing in a soul on fire with

indignation toward the Wrong, and loving as a woman's for the Right, he cannot be otherwise than an orator—the people's orator, the pleader for the Right, the advocate for the wronged; and the more lowly and despised the victim, the more earnest his advocacy. The champion of the masses—a leader and a captain in the marches of civilization—his clarion-shouts quickening the dead, confirming the weak, cheering the living, and resolving all hearts on victory or death! The Union of these States, and the great principles of Liberty for the security of which that Union was established, in him have their most eloquent advocate, and Treason its best hater. All honor to Philadelphia for her wise improvement of this eventful period by her election to the national councils of WILLIAM D. KELLEY. Her glorious old patriots of the early time will sleep all the better, knowing that this eagle-eyed sentinel walks the ramparts.

William D. Kelley was born on the 12th of April, 1814, in the city of Philadelphia. His father, David Kelley, son of Major John Kelley, who served with the Jersey troops throughout the Revolutionary War, was a successful watchmaker and jeweler, until a short period before his death in 1817. After the demise of her husband, his mother established a leading boarding-house, and at a proper age her only son was placed, as boys in moderate circumstances in a city are, at the nearest school, where he obtained the rudiments of an English education.

When little more than eleven years old he entered the printing-office of Jasper Harding as copy-reader, and during his fourteenth year apprenticed himself, for a term of more than six years and three months, to Messrs. Rickards & Dubosq, jewelers. He had stipulated for freedom at twenty, in view of his extreme youth, and has often said that luck was against him in this, as he came to the responsibilities of manhood at a time when the business of the country was so depressed that he could find no employment, and had to devote his first year to accumulating debt.

In the spring of 1835 he found employment with Messrs. Clark & Curry, jewelers, of Boston, with whom he remained till the spring of 1839. As during his apprenticeship he had been an active member of the Youths' Library Company of Philadelphia, so here, though unable to unite with its membership, he availed himself of the library and exercises of the Mechanic Apprentices' Library.

Upon leaving Boston, where he had already established some reputation as a popular lecturer and effective stump speaker, he returned to his native city and entered the office of Col. James Page as a student

of law. He was a radical Democrat, and took an active part in the campaign of 1840, speaking almost daily from its opening in June, to its close in November. Fortunately, perhaps, for him, the result was disastrous to his party, and he applied himself to his professional studies with a determination to make up, if possible, for the time he had wasted, and thus secured his admission to the bar at the expiration of the shortest term of study allowed by the rules of court.

The professional career of Mr. Kelley was rapid and flattering. Crowded with distinguished men as the Philadelphia bar was, he had been admitted to practice but little more than three years when Hon. John K. Kane, Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, called him to the office of Prosecuting Attorney, and confided to him the administration of the criminal law in the city and county of Philadelphia. When Attorney-General Kane was made Judge of the District Court of the United States, Mr. Kelley tendered his resignation, and resumed his general practice. This, however, proved to be for but a brief period, for in about four months Hon. Benjamin Champneys, having assumed the office of Attorney-General, pressed Mr. Kelley to resume that of Prosecuting Attorney, whence, in the following spring, 1847, he was transferred to the bench of the Court of Common Pleas, Quarter Sessions, and Oyer and Terminer, by Governor Francis R. Shunk.

Few men have known so rapid a transition, to qualify them for which so much severe study and intellectual aptitude were necessary. In less than eight years from the time he packed up his tools and quit the work-bench, he was performing the functions of Judge of a Court the jurisdiction of which extended over more than 600,000 people, and embraced the various branches of law and equity administered by the courts of Westminster and the Lord Chancellor.

How satisfactorily to the bar and people he performed his duties was shown at the election of 1851. By an amendment to the State Constitution the judiciary had been made elective, and the tenure of office reduced from life to ten years. Judge Kelley had decided an important and exciting election-case against his party, and when the Democratic Judicial Convention met it refused to consider his claims to a nomination, and presented the name of a distinguished lawyer instead of his. The people, however, made him a candidate, and elected him by a larger majority than had ever been given to any candidate for office whose election had been at all contested in Philadelphia.

The Judge continued, notwithstanding this, to vote with his old party until the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was effected. This

act he regarded as the sure precursor of great evils to the country ; and though he had, notwithstanding his known sympathy with the Free-Soil movement of 1848, maintained a silence becoming the proprieties of his judicial office, he was open in his denunciation of the Kansas-Nebraska act, its friends and authors. He assisted in creating the Republican Party, and in 1856 he accepted, with no possible chance of election, a nomination for Congress, and resigned the judgeship.

Though certain of defeat he stumped his district vigorously : several of his addresses were reported at length and widely circulated in pamphlet form. One of the earliest, known as his Spring Garden Hall speech, became a text-book of the campaign, and was translated and extensively circulated in the German and Welsh languages.

Again he opened an office and entered at once upon a successful and profitable professional career, to which he devoted himself until the People's party, of his district, sent him as a delegate to the Chicago Convention. Though he went to the Convention to sustain the claims of his State by supporting General Cameron so long as he should seem to have a chance for a nomination, he frequently informed his colleagues during the journey that he would find in Abraham Lincoln or Ben Wade the candidate most acceptable to him.

During the exciting campaign that resulted in the success of Mr. Lincoln, he devoted himself almost exclusively to the interests of his party.' It is said that he traveled more than six thousand miles to address audiences in almost all the Border Free States, from New York to Missouri, inclusive.

Meanwhile, the people of the Fourth Congressional District of Pennsylvania reversed the judgment they had entered against him in 1856, and by a majority of over 1,500 sent him to represent them in the councils of the nation in this grandest of its historic periods.

Mr. Kelley came to Congress an inexperienced legislator, never having sat in any legislative body ; but he came with loyal purpose, and bringing with him a strong brain, a quick heart, and a resolute spirit, already has attained that influential position in the House that most men toil for through successive years. In the debates of the great questions now pressing upon Congress and the nation, Mr. Kelley has taken a leading part, and his speeches are not only remarkable for their eloquence and force, but have all the breadth and sagacity of matured statesmanship.

Now, the ambitious young man who may read this sketch will ask, Whence the source of this man's great popularity and success ?

First of all, it is to be sought in his hearty sympathy with the masses ; he has laid his own warm heart alongside the great heart of the people, and felt its great pulsations until his own has learned to beat in sympathy. Then much does he owe to his life-long unspotted integrity, in all relations and amid all temptations. And greatly is he indebted to the indomitable will which the Almighty graciously granted him with his being. The impression on his seal, the hand of a muscular forearm grasping the horn of a bull's head—the motto, "Take hold fearlessly," reveals one of the secrets of his success.

WILLIAM E. LEHMAN.

WILLIAM ECKHARDT LEHMAN is the Representative from the First District of Pennsylvania. He was born in Philadelphia, August 21, 1823. He was educated at the Pennsylvania College, in Philadelphia ; graduated with high honors in 1844, and studied law with Hon. Joseph R. Ingersoll ; was admitted to the bar in 1847 ; has always resided in Philadelphia, except during the years 1855 and '56, which were spent in travel in Europe ; practiced law with success, and was considered an eloquent and forcible pleader ; enjoyed a lucrative practice ; retired from the active practice of the law ; was a candidate for Congress in 1856, and a warm personal and political friend of Mr. Buchanan ; dissenting from his Lecompton policy, he espoused the cause of Mr. Douglas ; in 1860, received the Democratic nomination, and was elected by a plurality of 132. This election led to a memorable contest, Mr. John M. Butler, the Republican candidate, contesting the seat. Mr. Butler held the certificate of the Board of Return Judges, while Mr. Lehman received the proclamation of the Governor of his State declaring him elected. The House, in the first instance, admitted Mr. Lehman to his seat, and subsequently ratified his right to retain it, although the Committee of Elections reported against him. Judge Worcester, of Ohio, an eminent jurist and a warm Republican, espoused Mr. Lehman's cause.

The *Public Ledger*, of Philadelphia, only echoed the general feeling of the press and community in the following article :

"THE CONTEST FOR THE SEAT IN THE FIRST CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICT SETTLED.—The House of Representatives in Congress yesterday voted that Mr. Lehman has the best right to the seat in Congress which he now occupies, and that Mr. Butler's claim is unfounded.

This, considering that a majority in the House is politically opposed to Mr. Lehman, is strong testimony of the justice of his claim, and it is equally as strong a condemnation of the fraudulent means resorted to for his displacement. It is a good sign to see a political party rising above its prejudices and predilections, and disposing of a case solely upon its merits as a matter of justice. No person in this quarter, who has bestowed any attention upon the case and the testimony can have any reasonable doubt that a series of the most bold and desperate frauds were concocted and executed to defraud Mr. Lehman of his election. The discovery of the first, and a judicial conviction so immediately upon the discovery, opened the way for the detection of the others, or at least for such presumptive evidence of the second, that a jury like the national House of Representatives could not resist the proof, and would not permit the accomplishment of the fraud. The lesson will not be without its good fruits. The result will go very far to establish in politics what has long been a cardinal principle in morals, that 'honesty is the best policy.' Cheating the ballot-box is as much a revolutionary attempt to destroy democratic government as the assault upon Fort Sumter. The only difference is that the process is more insidious and mean, and not so likely therefore to be crushed until it has corrupted public opinion, and inflicted a fatal injury upon the elective franchise. Mr. Lehman's triumph is therefore not only a triumph over wrong, but it gives an additional security to the purity of our elections, without which republican government cannot stand. In his hands we believe that the interests of his constituents will be well served. His energetic and manly maintenance of their rights in the defence of his own claim, affords the best evidence of the resolution and ability with which he will publicly act."

Mr. Lehman's course in the House has been conservative. He voted for the President's emancipation resolution, for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, and for the recognition of Hayti and Liberia. On the other hand, he opposed the bill prohibiting slavery in the Territories, and voted against all the measures of confiscation. His remarks on the confiscation bill were well received by the House on account of their moderation. He considered the measure inopportune and vindictive, while the Government had no power to execute laws already enacted to punish the rebels. Mr. Lehman has throughout given an earnest support to the Government in its efforts to suppress treason.

Mr. Lehman is of German descent, and his family occupied a prominent position in the old country; but dissenting from the pretended faith of Count Zeinzendorf, their property was confiscated, and Godfrey Lehman emigrated to this country. The great-grandfather of the present Mr. Lehman was an eminent astronomer, and the

bosom friend of David Rittenhouse. His grandfather, Dr. Lehman, was a surgeon in the Revolutionary army, and was for two years a prisoner in England. His father emigrated to Natchez in 1808. He was appointed judge by the Governor of that State—Mississippi. When New Orleans was menaced by the British, he promptly volunteered and marched to its defense, under the command of Captain Wilkins. The present Mr. Lehman has devoted his leisure to literary pursuits, having contributed to the newspaper and periodical literature of the day. For several years he edited the *Patriot and Union*, the State organ at Harrisburg. He has filled several positions in the local government of the city, was for a time Assistant Attorney-General, and was appointed under President Polk a special agent to examine the post offices in Pennsylvania and New York—a duty which he discharged to the satisfaction of the Postmaster-General.

DWIGHT LOOMIS

was born at Columbia, Tolland County, Connecticut, July 27, 1821. His father, an intelligent farmer of moderate means, being unable to give him a collegiate education, he was compelled to depend upon the limited opportunities afforded by the common school of his native village, enjoying in addition only the advantages of two terms' attendance at an academy. Until the age of twenty-one he labored on his father's farm, with the exception of the winter seasons after his sixteenth year, which he employed in teaching school.

In the spring of 1844, he commenced the study of law in the office of the Hon. John H. Brockway, of Ellington, Connecticut, and subsequently entering the law department of Yale College, graduated in March, 1847, and being immediately admitted to the bar of Tolland County, commenced the practice of his profession in Rockville, Conn., at the age of twenty-six. From this time he rose rapidly in the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and gained a reputation for honesty and trustworthiness which the community delighted to honor by placing him in various positions of trust and public importance. His strict integrity in all his professional dealings, his sound and comprehensive judgment and deep discrimination, gave him eminent success at the bar and a constantly increasing practice.

In 1851 Mr. Loomis was elected a member of the House of Representatives of the Connecticut Legislature, and served through the

session. In 1857 he was chosen to the State Senate. In the organization of that body he was appointed chairman of the Judiciary Committee—a position of the greatest honor and importance, the bestowal of which is a high tribute to personal worth, talent, and legal attainments. The arduous duties of this position were administered with such tact by Mr. Loomis as to commend him still more highly to the confidence of the people of the State.

In politics he was a Whig until the dissolution of that party. From the first he took a leading part in the organization of the Republican party of Connecticut, and was a delegate to the National Republican Convention of 1856, which nominated Fremont for the Presidency, and during the campaign which followed, his time and talents were most happily devoted to expounding the great principles of the contest.

In April, 1859, Mr. Loomis was elected as Representative to the XXXVIth Congress, from the First District of Connecticut, comprising the counties of Hartford and Tolland. The district, always evenly balanced politically, and hotly contested, was unusually doubtful at that election, from the unfortunate circumstances of the canvass—rendered unfortunate by the course of a disaffected applicant for the nomination, in offering himself as an independent candidate. Mr. Loomis, however, stood high in the estimation of the people, and they did not waver in their choice, but elected him triumphantly over all his opponents. His faithful course through the exciting and stormy sessions of the XXXVIth Congress were eminently satisfactory to his constituents, and in March, 1861, he was unanimously renominated by the party as a candidate for re-election, and in April of the same year, by a largely increased majority, he was returned as a Representative to the XXXVIIth Congress.

The Congressional District, as has been said, is very close and doubtful, and the contest at the election for both terms has rarely been equaled in the country for the zeal and energy with which it was conducted. But the popularity of Mr. Loomis, engendered by the uprightness of his public life and the soundness of his political views, gave him such a superiority over his opponents that he was victorious beyond anticipation.

His faithfulness and attention to the business of the House are worthy of remark: never, or rarely, missing a vote, and never voting without calm deliberation, his record is clear and faultless upon every question of importance. His labors in the committee room are indefatigable in giving to every subject diligent and patient inquiry. His

course in Congress has been one of unwavering consistency and principle, although during his first term the Government seemed about to crumble into fragments through corruption and unprincipled disloyalty. During the darkest days of the Republic he exhibited in a high degree a spirit of manliness and resolution in resisting the machinations of the secret enemy, and at the same time a spirit of pacification in all measures taken to rectify the disorders of the times. In the extraordinary emergencies at the close of that session, when the great rebellion was taking shape in the halls of Congress, his voice and vote were in rebuke of the treason which was fast ripening into civil war, and in defense of a violated Constitution and outraged law. When hostilities had commenced, and the enemy was thundering almost at the gates of the unarmed and defenceless Capital, at the Extra Session of 1861, he was an energetic advocate of the necessity of giving the Government every means and facility to defend itself, and to restore the old Union to the prosperous days of peace again.

Where best known, there he is the most respected. Frank and honest, ever actuated by good motives, and possessed of all the virtues of manhood which make the good citizen and friend, his private as well as his public character is distinguished for manliness and dignity. Characterized by integrity and temperance, eminent for his unselfish patriotism and usefulness, and respected for his self-reliance and success, it may be hoped that his course may continue as prosperous, and his services be as highly prized and as worthily rewarded by the people, in the future as in the past.

GEORGE W. JULIAN.

AMONG the prominent statesmen and patriots of the present day, and the men of mark in the XXXVIIth Congress must be ranked the Hon. George W. Julian, of Indiana. His consistent and honorable career as a public man is not unknown to the people of the United States; but a more particular account of his life, and of the steps by which he rose from the walks of poverty and obscurity to the distinguished position he has attained among the counsellors of the nation, cannot fail to be singularly interesting and instructive.

He was born May 5th, 1817, near Centreville, the shire town of Wayne County, Indiana, his present place of residence. His father and mother were natives of North Carolina, whence they emigrated

near the beginning of the present century, and were among the very earliest settlers of Indiana Territory. The family is of French extraction, the first of the name in America having settled on the Eastern Shore of Maryland near the close of the last century. A son of his, Isaac Julian, is mentioned in the annals of that period as residing near Winchester, Virginia, shortly after Braddock's defeat. (See Irving's Life of Washington, vol. I., chapter 18.) On account of the continued Indian troubles, he soon after fled with his family to North Carolina.

The father of the subject of this notice was prominent among the pioneer citizens of Indiana. In 1822 he was a member of the State Legislature. He died the year following, when George was six years of age—one of six young children left to the care of a faithful mother, but to an inheritance of poverty and hardship. The history of their early life, if written, were but another chapter from

“The short and simple annals of the poor.”

Suffice it to say that under these adverse influences George early developed his principal later characteristics. He was particularly distinguished for diligence and indomitable perseverance, amounting almost to obstinacy, in the path of mental improvement, or in whatever else he deemed he ought to accomplish. After his day's labor in the fields, his practice was—unable to procure a better light—to split a supply of “kindlings,” and by the light thus afforded to pursue his studies to a late hour of the night.

His only educational privileges were those of the common country schools of the period, and good books occasionally borrowed of more wealthy neighbors. So his principal dependence was self-schooling—ever the grand basis upon which the successful student, whether at home, at school, or college, must build. From such a preparation, the next step was naturally teaching, which he followed with credit upwards of three years.

During his first school, he signalized himself by successfully resisting a very formidable effort of the “big boys,” re-enforced by some of the hands then at work on the Cumberland or National Road, to compel him to “treat” on Christmas day, according to a custom long prevalent at the West.

In the spring of 1839, while teaching in Western Illinois, he began the study of law, which he prosecuted chiefly without the aid of a preceptor. He was admitted to practice in 1840, and has followed his profession ever since, save the interruptions of politics. In 1845 he was married to Miss Anne E. Finch, of Centreville. The same year

Mr. Julian was elected to the State Legislature, in which he distinguished himself by his advocacy of the abolition of capital punishment, and his support of what is known as the "Butler Bill," by the passage of which one-half of the State debt was canceled, and the State probably saved thereby from repudiation. A Whig by family associations, and elected as such, he did not hesitate to act independently of party in his advocacy of this important and very laudable measure.

About this time, having imbibed the anti-slavery spirit of New England philosophy, he became an earnest convert to the faith of freedom. When, therefore, in 1848, the nomination of General Taylor was urged upon a reluctant people, he rejected it; stood neutral for a while; was finally induced to attend the convention at Buffalo; came home overflowing with a noble enthusiasm in the good cause; was appointed elector for his district for Van Buren and Adams, and went to work heart and strength in the unequal contest; endured the disruption of kindred and social ties; received and despised the hisses and execrations, the abuse and calumnies of many of his former political associates, but firmly met his ablest opponents with the arrows of truth, and lashed freedom's bitterest adversaries until they cowered beneath his keen sarcasm.

Friends and foes were alike astonished at the rapidly unfolding powers of a soul redeemed from political darkness, and the latter not a little chagrined to find they had roused a lion when they thought to crush a worm. The result was, that the next year (1849) he was elected to Congress over the late Hon. Samuel W. Parker, a prominent Whig politician, and regarded by his friends as one of the best speakers of the West.

In Congress, Mr. Julian faithfully sustained the principles upon which he was elected against all temptations. His speeches on the slavery question were able, and the tone of uncalculating radicalism which pervaded them, did much to exile him from public life during the ten years preceding his present term of service. That delivered on the public lands embodies the leading features of the policy on that subject which has recently received the indorsement of all parties, and was declared by the *National Era* to be the most thorough speech ever made on the subject. Grace Greenwood, speaking of it at the time, paid it this compliment:

"This was a strong, fearless, and eloquent expression of a liberty-loving and philanthropic spirit. It is lying before me now, and I have just been reading some of its finest passages; and, brief and un-

studied as it is, it does not seem to me a speech for one day, or for one Congressional session. It seems nerved with the strength of a great purpose, veined with a vital truth, a moral life-blood beating through it warm and generous. It is something that must live and work yet many days."

In 1851, through a combination of fossil and pro-slavery Whigs and Democrats, brought about by their leading exponents outside of the district, and even the State, he was defeated by Mr. Parker. In 1852, his services and reputation received honorable national recognition in his nomination, by the Pittsburgh Convention, for the Vice-Presidency of the United States, on the ticket with the Hon. John P. Hale.

During the reaction which followed the Free-soil movement of 1848, Mr. Julian remained in retirement, receiving, of course, his full share of the odium attached to men of his class—an odium which was heightened by his determined opposition to Know-Nothingism. His speech on that subject, published in the *National Era* and "Facts for the People," is reckoned by many as the ablest argument extant against that strange political fanaticism, which, for a time, so remarkably took possession of the public mind. Although the great body of his old and tried friends rushed into the lodges of this secret order, and turned upon him an averted face, he fought it with all his powers of argument and invective, from the very beginning to the end of its evil life; while it is simple justice to say, that if he had seen fit to join it, in the spring of 1854, he might then have been returned to Congress, as he could have been in 1851, by softening and modifying his inflexible purpose to yield no jot or tittle of what he believed to be the truth.

In 1856 he was called to take a prominent part in the initiatory progress of the National Republican party, as Vice-President of the Pittsburgh Convention of that year, and chairman of the committee of organization. As a politician, he has steadily opposed the tendency towards "fusion" with Know-Nothingism, Douglasism, and what not, which has been the besetting sin of Indiana republicanism.

In 1860, by a signal triumph over every conceivable form and combination of Hunkerism, and personal and political jealousy and malignity, he was nominated by a popular vote of his party, and overwhelmingly returned to Congress at the general election.

In the present Congress, the most important since the formation of the Government, Mr. Julian has won marked distinction. He was

placed by the Speaker on the joint committee of both Houses on the conduct of the war, a trust of great magnitude and responsibility, and the efficient aid which it is understood he has rendered as a member of that committee must ensure to him, together with the other members, the gratitude of all loyal Americans. His speech on the 14th of last January, on the "Cause and Cure of our National Troubles," is the master effort of his life, and secured for him the admiration of all true men. It must take its place as a part of the prominent literature of the country. His speech on "Confiscation and Liberation," delivered on the 23d of May, is less elaborate, but equally forcible, and not less fitted for wide circulation as a tract for the times.

All his speeches breathe the spirit of freedom, and have the merit of careful thought, methodical arrangement, and a remarkably clear and forcible diction.

Mr. Julian belongs to the radical wing of Republicans. In the controversy between the Administration and General Fremont, he decidedly espoused the side of the latter; and, after hearing all the evidence adduced before the joint committee on the war, relating to that controversy, he is understood to be still the earnest and devoted friend of the great Pathfinder. He is not, however, the opponent of the Administration, as any one will see by referring to the kindly and regretful tone of that portion of his speech, of the 14th of January, in which he criticizes the policy of the President.

Mr. Julian is a tall man, with a physical organization not less vigorous than his intellectual. His expansive forehead indicates clearness and strength of thought, and his physiognomy marks him as a man of very decided firmness, conscientiousness, and benevolence. He is no trimmer, no dealer in expediency, and is ready at any time to make any earthly sacrifice to his convictions of right. No man was ever more inflexible in purpose. Compromise is not written upon his brow; but, while in disposition he is one of the most positive of men, he possesses a most remarkable kindness of heart, great social qualities, and a faculty of attaching to himself good men of all creeds and opinions. His face is one to be loved, because of the promise it gives of all that is gentle, and generous, and good. Looking upon him you feel that he is a man whom you can trust. His private character is above reproach, and has been a perpetual protest against the general divorce which has taken place between morals and politics. In his speeches he has for years insisted that those who support knaves and traders for office, or men who scoff at virtue and decency, are partakers of

their vices ; and that, in the language of Mazzini, " we must re-unite earth to heaven, politics to the eternal principles which should direct them." There has been no time, in the history of our country, when such men were more needed than now.

It would be unjust to close this sketch without adding, that to the judicious counsel and executive energy of his excellent and gifted wife —who died soon after his last election—he is largely indebted for whatever praiseworthy work he has accomplished thus far in the journey of life. In person she was most beautiful, whilst she was gifted with the finest endowments of both mind and heart. She was bright, intuitive, sincere, disinterested, charitable, a lover of nature and the beautiful, and a friend of every form of practical philanthropy. Their lives were perfectly one, and his devotion to her during her protracted sickness, and his unrelieved sorrow since her death, find very few parallels in domestic life.

The traces of a deep and weary sadness are depicted in his face, exciting the sympathy and pity of all who know how much he has "loved and lost."

Mr. Julian is yet in the meridian of life, and his friends predict for him a career still more conspicuously honorable in the future. They know it must continue to be consistent and manly, whilst their faith grows constantly stronger that the progress of truth and liberal ideas will more and more weave the story of his life into the best and brightest pages of our national history. Probably no man in the Union has truer or more devoted friends and admirers, or more relentless foes ; whilst very few of our public men possess more ability to fight their own political battles, or more courage to encounter every form and quality of opposition.

FREDERICK F. LOW,

OF CALIFORNIA.

CALIFORNIA is a great country, and famed for the great size and excellent quality of all its natural productions ; and although it has produced as yet but few great men, it cannot be doubted that a State the diameter of whose trees is measured by the rod ; whose potatoes, never "small," are, some of them, sufficiently large to feed an elephant from the peelings of a single one ; whose corn acknowledges no superior, and whose beets can be beat by none ; whose girls develop their

charms so early and so well that it is said that lasses of sixteen are frequently obliged to keep short ladders in their houses for their Atlantic-bred lovers to climb upon when they desire a "smack," and a surveyor's chain to aid them in performing an embrace—and the courting of whom, no less than the hardships and dangers incidental to the first settlement of all new countries, is pre-eminently calculated to develop the heroic qualities in man, especially daring and courage: it cannot be doubted that a State like this will one day produce a crop of men whose intellectual, moral, and physical structure will be on a scale equally grand and worthy of admiration with its lower natural growths.

Frederick F. Low, though one of her most honored citizens, is not a native of California, having been born in Frankfort, Waldo County, Me., June 30, 1829. His education was acquired in the common schools of his native town, and in the Academy at Hampden, Me. In 1846 he went to Boston, where he served for three years as a clerk to a mercantile firm. He left Boston in the early part of 1849 for California. Reaching the "land of gold," he left immediately for the mines, and worked on the Horse-shoe Bar, at the North Fork of the American River, until the beginning of the rainy season, when he returned to San Francisco and devoted himself to mercantile pursuits, which—and the banking business—he has since carried on, first in San Francisco and then in Marysville, with a great degree of success; having, in spite of repeated losses by fire and flood, amassed a considerable fortune.

Politically, Mr. Low was a Whig until 1856, when he became a member of the Republican Party, of the principles of which he has ever since been a firm, consistent, and able supporter. Being engaged in business pursuits which occupied his whole time, he persistently refused any nomination for office until 1861, when he was nominated and elected a member of the XXXVIIth Congress, of which, we believe, he is the youngest member but one. Arriving late during the present session, he has made no speeches as yet, although from his appearance and well-known ability, we should judge him capable of doing something more than ordinary in that line, and he will doubtless make his mark before leaving the halls of Congress.

Mr. Low has excellent claims to be classed among the good-looking men of the House, possessing a good figure, fine expressive blue eyes, and a high, intellectual forehead. It may be considered a high compliment to his personal appearance and manly qualities that, in California, where the bachelors outnumber the marriageable girls five or

six to one, so that the latter have unequaled opportunities for making a good selection, or "taking their pick," among the former, he should succeed in winning an excellent wife, having been married, in 1857, to Miss Mary Creed, formerly of Lancaster, Ohio.

JOHN A. GURLEY.

A GREAT many men are born too late—a generation after their time—while now and then the world is blessed with the presence of a man ahead of his times; a harbinger of the better future; a John the Baptist preparing the way of the higher civilization. But John A. Gurley seems to have been born just in his own right time. He belongs to this day and generation—these times of stirring activity and genuine progress—these days of the broader recognition of the rights, and claims, and dignity of our common humanity, and the sterner infusion of moral principle into the politics of the Nations. And so living in his own day and in his own generation, Mr. Gurley is eminently a practical and useful man. His restless activity, his true democracy, his broad catholicism, his determination to help make our "politics" something more than a mere scramble for office, and a quarrelsome division of its pelf—indeed, to make the politics of this foremost nation of the earth the grand power of our Christian civilization—are all in harmony with the spirit and genius of this 19th century of the Christian era. And thus working *with* the times, and with those great powers, unseen but omnipotent, which the Almighty in the fullness of his own time sends among men and nations, Mr. Gurley, though yet in the prime of his years, has been able to do much right royal service for the Right.

John A. Gurley was born in East Hartford, Conn., December 9, 1814. At the age of nineteen he commenced a course of theological studies in the adjoining town of Hartford, and at twenty-one became a preacher in the denomination of Universalists. For three years he was a settled clergyman in Methuen, Mass., a pleasant town, through which flows the sweetest of New England rivers, the Merrimack. But the West—the young, the thriving, the expanding, the living West—was the home for young Gurley, and thither he removed in 1838, locating in the city of Cincinnati, where for fifteen years he edited and published a paper devoted to the interests of the religious denomination

with which he was connected, which had a circulation throughout the entire South and West in extent almost unknown then or since to the religious press, much larger than any ever reached by any other paper of his denomination. But his intense and multiplied labors as preacher, editor, and publisher, made sad havoc with his health, and some nine years ago he abandoned the clerical profession, sold his paper, and retired to a small farm on the slope of one of the beautiful hills that stand round about Cincinnati. Out-door labor and entire abstinence from public speaking gradually brought back health and native vigor.

In 1856, while absent upon a visit to his native New England, entirely unexpected to himself Mr. Gurley was nominated for Congress by the Republicans of the Ohio Second Congressional District, which embraces one-half of the city of Cincinnati, and one-half of the adjoining townships of Hamilton County. The Americans brought out in opposition the Hon. J. Scott Harrison, while the Democrats nominated the Hon. Wm. S. Groesbeck—the two most popular men in Cincinnati of their respective parties. The majority against the Republicans in this district, the year previous, was three thousand and four hundred, but Mr. Gurley, in this new relation, brought his working habits along with him, and the result of the active canvass showed but fourteen hundred majority against him, Mr. Groesbeck being elected. Mr. Gurley having made so gallant a run in this before hopeless district, of course in 1858 he was again nominated, this time running against Mr. Groesbeck alone, and beating him, the strongest man of his party in Cincinnati, with a majority of eight hundred votes. In 1860 Mr. Gurley was renominated by acclamation. The opposition, anxious for his defeat, this time attempted the old game of two candidates in opposition, but Mr. Gurley was returned by a plurality of nine hundred. The contest of 1858 was perhaps the warmest every known in southern Ohio ; for several days previous to the election nearly all other business was suspended in Cincinnati. The old files of Mr. Gurley's religious paper were ransacked for material with which to excite prejudice and opposition among men of other denominations ; but, in rebuke of such political warfare, almost the entire body of the clergy of Cincinnati went to the polls and voted for Mr. Gurley. He had a right, as were all his friends, to be proud of the result of this campaign.

At his first session of Congress, Mr. Gurley was chairman of the Committee on Public Printing, and it is through his untiring labors in that position that the country owes its rescue from the corruptions of the old system of public printing, through the establishment

of a Government Printing Office, and a yearly saving of more than one hundred thousand dollars.

At the last session of the XXXVIth Congress, when Treason was blatant in both Houses, Mr. Gurley was almost the first to administer the proper rebuke and demand vigorous action for the punishment of traitors and the defense of the country. His reply to Garnett was worthy of the days of Patrick Henry. His celebrated speech of the present Congress, urging a change in the management of the war, and its more vigorous and resolute prosecution, while it received unusual attention throughout our own country, and the very general and hearty indorsement of the loyal heart of the North and West, was translated and published in every daily paper of France—an honor and attention never before given to the speech of any American statesman—and was much commented on by the French press as furnishing the first rational explanation of the seeming paralysis of our army, and the first evidence that the North was capable of anything better.

In person, Mr. Gurley is slight ; of a quick, nervous temperament ; a head well developed in the intellectual and moral regions ; a sharply chiseled face ; light brown hair ; with a deep blue eye, full of all kindly expression. As a legislator, his career has been marked with unusual success. As a politician, he is sagacious and indomitable to the last extent. As a friend, he is true ; as a man, honorable and upright.

JOHN W. MENZIES.

MR. MENZIES, one of the ablest of Kentucky lawyers, was elected to the present Congress by about two-thirds of the votes of his district, receiving 1,776 votes in Covington, the place of his residence. He is a native of Kentucky, born April 12th, 1819, in Fayette County. His father moved to Bourbon County in 1820, and to Boone in 1832, where the son had the privileges of the country school (as several of his friends have had before and since), and also attended the Franklin Academy, at Washington, Ky. Going to Virginia in 1837, he graduated in the Law School of the University of Virginia, in 1840, began the practice of his profession in 1846, and settled during September of the same year at Covington, where he has since gained and enjoyed one of the widest and most lucrative prac-

tices in the State. He served in the General Assembly, House of Representatives, in the session of 1848-'49, voting for Mr. Clay the last time he was elected to the U. S. Senate, and again a member of the same body in 1855-'56. Mr. M. was made Chairman of the Judiciary Committee. He supported John Bell (as many other respectable gentlemen did) in 1860, and consequently "the Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws," which John Bell *didn't*. Mr. M. took heartiest ground from the first against the secession element, and fought it bravely and successfully.

As a member of Congress, Mr. Menzies has already won a position among the most influential gentlemen of the House, although in his first term, devoting himself earnestly to the best interests of his native State, yet finding them in the same plain and atmosphere with those of his country. With a pleasing face, and qualities of character which are attractive in men (giving them a right to the title of gentlemen), modest, warm-hearted, and true, he is loved by his friends, and esteemed and respected by his casual associates.

EDWIN HANSON WEBSTER.

MR. WEBSTER has the satisfaction of representing his native State, and a district in which are the graves of his ancestors of many generations. He was born on the 31st of March, 1829, in Harford County, Maryland, and in the house where his father before him was born. It is doubtful if there can anywhere on the continent be found in the same space as much natural beauty of scenery as exists in the counties of Kent, Cecil, Harford, Baltimore, and Carroll—all of the first three and part of the last two of which are in Mr. Webster's district; and especially is this true of the County of Harford. From Bell Air, the county seat, and the residence of Mr. Webster, the country rolls away to the east in a succession of easy undulations, clad in every *cereal* beauty, and crowned with forest trees, until it breaks up on the brink of the noble Susquehanna into a line of bastioned and castellated granite cliffs, from the highest of which, opposite Mount Ansarat, in Cecil County, the eye sweeps round a circuit of many miles, embracing almost at once every imaginable form of landscape and aquatic scenery. The Chesapeake Bay lies, more than a dozen miles of mirror, at the south, reflecting the white sails of the shipping and the black smoke of the steamers that constantly plow its

waters, or lie in fleets at anchor, or by the wharves at Port Deposite and Havre-de-Grace, both of which towns are in sight, and add greatly to the beauty of the scene. In the associations surrounding him the subject of our sketch was equally fortunate, for these were all favorable to the belief that enterprise, prudence, and patient industry, in every laudable pursuit, are sure of their reward in permanent success.

In his sixteenth year Mr. Webster entered the Freshman Class of Dickinson College, at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and graduated from that ancient seat of learning, with honor to himself, in 1847. The following year he devoted to the conduct of a select and classical school in his native county, and then entered the office of Hon. Otho Scott, one of the ablest and most distinguished jurists of the country, as student of law. Here he devoted himself for three years to a laborious preparation for the profession he had selected, and was in 1851 admitted to the bar in Baltimore.

The same year, but a little while before he was admitted to the bar, he was nominated by the Whigs for the office of State's Attorney—an incident worthy of note here chiefly because it marks his entrance into political life; for, although he ran ahead of his party, it was too greatly in the minority in his county, and he was not elected.

For the four following years he devoted himself diligently to the duties of his profession, securing in that time a legal practice excelled only by that of one or two of the older lawyers in the county. At the same time he secured a popular appreciation that gained him a nomination by the American, which had taken the place of the Whig party, for the State Senate. After a vigorous canvass he was elected—his vote being largely ahead of the general vote of his party in the district. Two years' service secured him so good a standing in the State Senate that he was then elected President of that body; and during the same period he was chosen Presidential elector, at the election of 1856, and was one of the immortal eight who voted for Mr. Fillmore in the College of Electors in that year. At the expiration of his senatorial term, his constituents gave him an assurance of their continued confidence by nominating and electing him, in 1859, to the XXXVIth Congress, where he performed the duties of the position so much to their satisfaction that at the convention called to nominate his successor in the present Congress, he received a handsome majority of the votes cast, and was renominated, although he had as competitors for the office Hon. Reverdy Johnson and Hon. A. H. Evans, both gentlemen of great influence and talent. At the election which followed this nomination, Mr. Webster had no opponent in the field.

When he took his seat in the extra session of the present Congress,

in July last, the cloud of war, so long looming in our southern sky, had burst in a storm of fire and cannon balls over and upon the heroic Anderson and his little garrison in the harbor of Charleston. Fort Sumter and the flag had fallen, and the heart of the nation seemed bursting with commingled feelings of sorrow, mortification, and rage, and the President had issued his proclamation calling for an army of 75,000 men, with which to meet and quell the now rapidly spreading disturbance in the Southern States. The issue of Union or no-Union seemed forced upon every man in the nation. In such a crisis Mr. Webster did not hesitate, but declared at once for the Union, and although a supporter of Mr. Bell in the late Presidential campaign, and having no party association with the President, and being desirous to accommodate all differences of opinion between the people of the Southern and of the Northern States as they had hitherto been accommodated, by mutual concession and by compromise, he was still conscientiously and bitterly opposed to the doctrine of "secession," and believed that the entire resources and power of the country should, if necessary, be called into requisition by Congress and the Administration to prevent by force a forcible disruption of the Union, which he regarded as but another name for the utter overthrow of the Constitution and the Government; and his whole course has from the commencement to the present time been in accordance with this view of the subject. At the same time he has no sympathy with those who, under the pretext of defending the Constitution from attacks on one side, break through all the barriers it opposes to the encroachments of power on the other, and under the specious guise of loyalty to the Government preach a relentless crusade against the enjoyment of rights, protection in which was the grand reason which induced the formation of the Union and the adoption of the Constitution.

Mr. Webster is evidently held in high esteem by the conservative men of all parties in Congress, while his intercourse with gentlemen who differ with him widely, and in opposite directions upon some subjects, is marked by cordiality and good fellowship; and although not often occupying the floor for the purposes of speech-making, when he does speak he is listened to with a degree of interest and attention that proves him to have a strong hold upon the respect of the House, in accounting for which we do not overlook the influence of an admirable physique, and the magnetic power of a large, frank, and generous organization, indicative of high health and an appreciation of the good things of this life, all which marks of genius and evidences of being a gentleman and genial good fellow, Mr. Webster possesses unmistakably and to a large degree.

JOHN BENEDICT STEELE

was born in Delhi, Delaware County, N. Y., on the 28th day of March, 1814.

Nathaniel Steele, his father, was a native of Walton, in the same county; was a farmer on a large scale, and also extensively engaged in several other branches of business. He was very well known in that community as a man of integrity and large business capacity. John B. Steele's mother was Esther Benedict, who was also born in Walton, and was the daughter of Ezra Benedict, a native of Connecticut, a lieutenant in the Revolutionary army, who, after the war, located in Walton, N. Y., then a wilderness. He was a hardy pioneer, and, as the country was populated, became a man of considerable position and influence. His occupation was that of a farmer, and there he lived and died.

Osman N. Steele, his elder brother, was a man of great energy and determination. He was murdered in early manhood, during the anti-rent difficulties in Delaware County, while acting as sheriff, and in the faithful and resolute discharge of his official duties, August 7, 1845.

Brigadier-General Frederick Steele, his younger brother, who has gained so deservedly a high military reputation, is too well known to need any mention from us here.

John B. Steele was educated in the Delaware Academy and Williams College, Mass.; Hon. A. B. Olm, one of his colleagues in the present Congress, was in that college with him, and graduated the year after Mr. Steele entered.

He studied law with Messrs. A. & A. J. Parker, at Delhi, and with Abraham Becker, Esq., of Worcester, Otsego County, N. Y., and was admitted as attorney at the May term of the Supreme Court, in 1839, in the city of New York. Commenced practice in Worcester, and afterwards removed to Oneonta, in the same county, where, in 1843, he married Ann Eliza Paddock, eldest daughter of Hon. Joseph W. Paddock, who was bred a lawyer, and followed his profession for some years with considerable success and distinction—at one time First Judge of Warren County; an accomplished gentleman, and a most benevolent, noble-hearted man. In the prime of life, from a sense of duty, he left a lucrative business, and became a minister of the Presbyterian Church, in which he was eminently successful.

Mr. Steele has but one child, a daughter. In January, 1845, Mr. Steele was appointed district attorney of Otsego County, which office he held for nearly three years. In 1847 his health, never robust, failed; in consequence, as was supposed, of over-work, and the trouble, excitement, and care consequent upon that terrible affair, the murder of his brother Osman N., and the disturbances of those times. Being physically unable to perform the duties of the office of district attorney, in consequence of this sickness, he deemed it his duty to resign, which he did, and soon after removed to Kingston, Ulster County, N. Y., his present place of residence.

In Ulster County, Mr. Steele has filled several public offices, and among others that of Judge in the county. In 1859 he ran for the office of County Judge against the present incumbent, Hon. Henry Brodhead, and was defeated by fourteen majority—Mr. Brodhead having received both the American and Republican nominations, and Mr. Steele only the Democratic. The vote was considered very complimentary to Mr. Steele—so much so, that he was again nominated by his party in 1860 for member of Congress, and elected over Hon. Peter H. Sylvester, of Coxsackie, Greene County, his competitor, who had been twice in Congress, and is a highly respectable gentleman, by a majority of one hundred and fifty-one, being considerably more than a party vote, as the district was carried by the Republicans on the general ticket at the same election by several hundred majority.

Mr. Steele has always sustained himself well in his profession, and has been much sought after as an advocate. In 1853, at the earnest solicitation of friends, he removed to the city of New York, and formed a copartnership with Mr. John Owen, a promising young lawyer of that city. He succeeded creditably in New York, and drew around him many clients of the highest respectability. He was much esteemed by many of the leading men of his profession in that city, and would doubtless have there remained in the practice of his profession, had not sickness in his family compelled his return to the country. In 1856 he returned to Kingston, after an absence of about three years, and resumed the practice of his profession there in company with Mr. George H. Sharp, his present partner.

In politics Mr. Steele has always been a Democrat, and although not a violent partisan, always active in the political canvass. He has been successful as a campaign speaker, and often has given himself with great earnestness to the discussion of political issues for months together, generally addressing large crowds of people in the open air,

which his powerful voice and ability to speak with readiness and fluency without notes, enabled him to do with considerable effect. He is of an energetic and restless nature, persevering in what he undertakes, and ardent and constant in his attachments. He is as tenacious of his opinions as his friendships: it is very seldom he ever changes the one or gives up the other. Generous and confiding in his nature, he is bitter and severe in his denunciations of duplicity and deceit. Those who know Mr. Steele best, understand that he must be heard when thoroughly aroused, to be appreciated. He has an argumentative mind, but is not fond of detail: he loves the free scope of the popular assembly. When he stands before a crowd of men, if the occasion warrants it, you can see him at his best.

[I owe this very able article to the kindness of Mr. John B. Steele, of New York :]

RICHARD FRANCHOT,

Representative in Congress from the Nineteenth District of New York, composed of the counties of Otsego and Delaware, was born in the old town of Butternuts, now Morris, Otsego County, N. Y., on the second day of June, 1816.

He is the son of Paschal Franchot, who emigrated from France to this country in the year 1790, and located in Butternuts, being among the early settlers of Otsego. He was for many years chiefly engaged in mercantile pursuits. In after life he became extensively engaged in manufacturing, and was chiefly instrumental in establishing those extensive cotton and woolen factories for which the locality was celebrated.

Mr. Franchot, the subject of this sketch, received a careful academic education, mostly in the local institutions, which in those days were among the first of their class in the country, viz., "The Hartwick Seminary," and "The Cherry Valley Academy." He was also for a time at the Troy Institute. In early life, Mr. Franchot became impressed with the importance of internal improvements for developing the vast resources of the country; and with a view of making himself familiar with the subject, and also of being practically useful in that way, he selected the profession of a civil engineer, and for seven years gave himself to the hard labor of such vocation upon the

general railroad of his State, since consolidated and now known as the "New York Central."

About 1841, Mr. Franchot returned to his native town and commenced the business of a farmer; and by his energy and perseverance in connection with a somewhat liberal education in regard to agricultural affairs, he soon took rank among the first farmers of that well-known agricultural region, and by his example and influence did much to encourage and perfect those associations which have so conspicuously figured in the history of agricultural advancement—himself holding important positions in such associations, and in fact being the chief officer and director of one of the most successful.

He found time, however, to note the progress of events, and true to the instincts of his first impulses, became deeply interested in the enlarged philanthropy and liberal views of the Sage of Ashland, insomuch that he was soon numbered among his most unqualified admirers; and was always in the days of that party well known as a Henry Clay Whig. And notwithstanding his quiet ways and unpretending manners, he was well known in the political canvasses of those days as an intelligent and effective platform-champion of his party. Although born and bred a gentleman, and accustomed from infancy to the most refined and elevating associations, he early learned to know and appreciate the great, true heart of the masses, and the people loved him; and in this was the mighty secret of his political success and power.

At length, however, even in the quiet inland country home which he had chosen as a retreat from the harrowing cares of a more exciting life, the grand schemes of internal improvement which he had so often seen in his youthful day-dreams demanded his practical attention; and the project of the Albany and Susquehanna Railroad, proposing to open an extended line of connecting railroad immediately along his "Happy Valley," aroused him, as the clarion notes the slumbering warrior, and from that time to his election as a member of the present Congress, the history of the "Albany and Susquehanna Railroad is his history."

After taking his seat in Congress, finding that his duties here were incompatible with those of president of that road, which he had held for three years, he resigned the office of president, but is still one of the principal directors.

In Congress, his ready business talent, accurate knowledge of men, and enlarged and liberal views, have been well appreciated. And although he has not as yet felt called upon to participate in the gen-

eral discussions upon the floor of the House, yet his ready ability and active practical business talent have rendered him eminently useful on the Pacific Railroad Committee, the Committee for the District of Columbia, and other committees on which he has served. Nor has Mr. Franchot been behind his associates in successful efforts at usefulness upon the floor of the House. Being eminently social and genial in his nature, ardent and constant in his attachments, there are not many men but desire his friendship, or who are willing to oppose his wishes, unless impelled to do so by a sense of duty. And the Pacific Railroad and other measures which run in the line of his long-cherished and well-settled convictions, can attest that it is not always the man who talks loudest or longest that is most heeded in the House.

Uniting heartily in the canvasses of the Republican party, of which he has been a member since its organization, he contributed much to its eventual success. And coming into Congress as his party came into power, he has acted firmly and steadily with his political associates, and yet with a charity and moderation offering an example worthy of imitation by many of far greater pretensions.

AARON A. SARGENT,

OF CALIFORNIA.

MR. SARGENT is one of the most promising young members of the House, being scarcely thirty-five years of age, and is a self-made man. Like many of our prominent legislators, he began life in a printing office; and in the printing office he educated himself.

He was a reporter in Congress for several years, before going to California. He has resided in that State since 1849, growing up with the State. He was connected with the Press, as editor, in California for a number of years, whence much of his public reputation arose. He was nominated as attorney-general of the State, in 1857, by the Republican party, but was defeated with the rest of the ticket—the party never gaining strength enough to carry an election till 1860. He has taken an active part in all elections since 1856, by traversing the State and addressing popular assemblages. He is well known in the State as speaker and writer.

Of his early life we know but little, excepting that he was born in

Newburyport, Mass.; and the history of his parentage and early childhood would be but another page in the short and simple annals of the poor. The man who holds a patent of nobility direct from Nature herself, needs not the empty boast of a long line of ancestors. Mr. Sargent resides in Nevada City, Cal., and held the office of District Attorney of Nevada County, from 1855 to '57. He has been Republican in politics since 1856; up to that time he had been an adherent of the Whig faith. He was a delegate to the Chicago Convention. This is Mr. Sargent's first term in Congress, but evidently it will not be his last. We have need of as many men of his stamp as we can press into the public service—earnest, thoughtful, large-hearted and strong-headed men, who are known by their actions more than by their words.

On the important question that now divides the people, Mr. Sargent comes straight up to the mark. He is for emancipating the slaves of *rebels*; and his able and eminently practical speech on the confiscation of rebel property, delivered in the House of Representatives, May 23, 1862, is a forcible expounder of his just and reasonable views on this subject, which must meet with the cordial endorsement of all good and true men.

Mr. Sargent is deeply interested in the noble enterprise of the Pacific Railroad, and advocates it as a military necessity; the truthfulness of which proposition he clearly proved in his speech of January 31, 1862, and of April 9th, in explanation of the pending bill. Having at heart the success of this enterprise, he has been most untiring in his efforts to forward it during the present session, laboring most earnestly for it by word and deed. Mr. Sargent also paid a glowing tribute to the memory of the ever-lamented Baker, on the occasion of the House of Representatives offering a memorial of its respect to the memory of the senator-soldier. From an intimate personal acquaintance with the deceased senator he was able to delineate his character with peculiar faithfulness, while his admiration for the man was evidently mingled with his earnest love for the friend.

KENTUCKY'S CRITTENDEN.

Why should I, or anybody, write a sketch of Mr. Crittenden? The nation knows all about him. The facts in his career are as familiar words all over the land; and I think I shall consult the preferences of his friends, as well as my own, if I give them my own outspoken opinion of his worth in the manner most natural to me, instead of furnishing an autobiographical sketch of him which could contain nothing that is not already known.

He has given all !
His health, his strength, his heart, his manhood's prime.
Be very, very gentle with him, Time,
And let our prayers thy stern demands forestall !

He has given all !
Oh, ripening head ! God's harvest is anear !
Oh, generous eyes ! so ready with a tear
At suffering's plaintive call !

He has given all !
One thought, one purpose, colored all his life,
And never, never turning from the strife,
Though driven to the wall :

His battle-cry rang out !
Stout-hearted soldier in the unequal fight !
Steadfast, and true, and lion-hearted knight !
We heard his shout ;

And wrong fell down ;
Vile bigotry, with poison-crested head,
Was sorely bruised beneath his sturdy tread ;
Right wore its crown !

He has given all !
Not vainly. Like a blessed household word,
Whose dropping quivereth on some tender chord,
His name shall ever fall !

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L'ŒUVRE

D'UN

GRAND PEUPLE

Par J.-N. P.

Deuxième édition

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1864

P R É F A C E

Le besoin de rendre plus efficaces les mesures prises pour assurer les bonnes conditions hygiéniques des troupes en campagne, pendant la guerre, et aussi en temps de paix, en garnison, est un sujet bien digne de fixer l'attention de tout homme qui réfléchit.

Le problème a une double importance, 1^o comme question d'humanité, 2^o en vue de rendre les troupes appelées à défendre leur patrie plus capables de répondre à cet appel.

En France, où l'on connaît si bien tous les principes de l'art de la guerre, il serait inutile d'insister longuement pour démontrer l'extrême importance de l'état sanitaire des armées.

Il existe un fait prouvé par les statistiques des différentes armées, et qui n'est pas assez généralement connu. C'est que, EN CAMPAGNE, IL MEURT TROIS FOIS PLUS DE SOLDATS, AU MOINS, PAR SUITE DE MALADIES ET DE MANQUE DE SOINS, QU'IL N'EN EST TUÉ PAR L'ENNEMI. Un tel état de

chooses demande à être sérieusement étudié, afin de le modifier, si faire se peut.

Les statistiques du corps médical anglais nous apprennent que, dans la guerre de Crimée, tandis que la mortalité résultant des blessures reçues dans les combats s'établissait dans une proportion de 3 p. 100, celle produite par les maladies s'élevait à plus de 20 p. 100.

Dans la guerre de 1846 entre les Etats-Unis et le Mexique, la différence fut encore plus considérable dans l'armée américaine; car sur 1,000 hommes 14 à peine mouraient de blessures, tandis que 103 environ succombaient par suite d'accidents ou de maladies.

Le corps médical des armées en campagne ne pourrait donner grande attention aux mesures purement sanitaires; tout son temps est généralement employé à soigner les malades. La guérison est plus de son ressort que l'hygiène; son devoir lui est rigoureusement indiqué par les règlements militaires, et, le plus souvent, on se garde avec soin de tout ce qui pourrait ressembler à une innovation.

L'expérience de tous les peuples démontre que l'application de la science sanitaire aux armées en état de guerre est un problème encore à l'étude. Tout ce qui peut jeter quelque lumière sur un sujet aussi important, doit, quelle qu'en soit d'ailleurs la source, contribuer au bien-être général de l'humanité.

Nous nous proposons de montrer, dans les pages suivantes, ce que les Américains ont fait, pendant la guerre qui depuis trois ans désole leur pays, pour résoudre cette question. L'énergie et le sens éminemment pratique de ce peuple le portèrent à agir ainsi de son propre mouvement, sans attendre d'ailleurs aucune aide du gouvernement. Les femmes et les enfants même de la République furent employés au soulagement des troupes en campagne, tandis que ses nombreux agents prouvaient au monde, par leur exemple, qu'une assistance volontaire et des avis pratiques peuvent être apportés au corps médical sans nuire à la discipline, et au grand profit du bien-être et de l'utilité des soldats. Les résultats obtenus donnent une sanction éclatante aux nobles paroles de M. J.-Henry Dunant¹ : « Le personnel des ambulances militaires est toujours insuffisant, partout, toujours, dans toutes les guerres, à toutes les époques et dans toutes les armées. Les annales militaires de tous les peuples confirment cette désolante vérité, et, ce qui est plus triste à dire encore, c'est que, quels que soient les efforts généreux et persévé rants que fassent les gouvernements pour augmenter et améliorer ces secours officiels incorporés dans les armées, jamais on ne pourra arriver par les efforts

¹ Auteur de *Un souvenir de Solferino*, 2^e édit., chez Joël Cherbuliez, Paris et Genève. 1863. In-8°.

« seuls de l'administration, à un résultat bien satisfaisant. Il faut absolument intéresser à cette œuvre les populations et obtenir leur coopération. Mais ces populations doivent être dirigées, conduites et éclairées; leur zèle, souvent intempestif, devra être tempéré et modifié, ou bien leur dévouement aura besoin d'être excité et encouragé. »

Ce sujet commence à intéresser sérieusement l'Europe entière. L'année dernière une « Conférence internationale pour examiner les moyens de pourvoir à l'insuffisance du service sanitaire dans les armées en campagne, » comprenant des délégués de toutes les principales puissances de l'Europe, s'assembla à Genève, le 26 octobre, pour discuter cette question. Une autre conférence doit encore avoir lieu cette année. Le sentiment public de notre époque demande que les souffrances inévitables de la guerre ne soient plus aggravées pour les soldats par des maux que l'on pourrait leur éviter. Profitons donc des expériences et de l'exemple qui nous sont offerts par la grande nation de l'Occident.

PREMIÈRE PARTIE

I

L'ŒUVRE D'UNE FEMME EN CRIMÉE.

Le dévouement et le zèle infatigables d'une femme anglaise dans les camps et dans les hôpitaux de Crimée et de Turquie, furent un exemple dont les philanthropes ne pouvaient manquer de profiter. Des centaines de femmes, aussi tendres que dévouées, avaient déjà sans doute consacré leur vie au soulagement des malades et des blessés, longtemps avant que Florence Nightingale devînt l'ange consolateur des victimes étendues sur les champs de bataille. Mais c'est à elle que nous devons de mieux connaître les besoins des soldats, et d'avoir, par ses généreux appels aux plus nobles sentiments, éveillé l'attention publique sur la nécessité des mesures sanitaires relatives aux armées.

Florence Nightingale a trouvé la solution d'un problème qui a longtemps embarrassé l'humanité.. Une fois la route frayée par ses efforts, des centaines d'hommes dévoués s'empressèrent de suivre ses pas. Le bien aussi est contagieux. Comme cela arrive presque toujours, la question parut bien simple quand elle fut résolue , mais

il fallait un cœur de femme pour trouver la marche à suivre; il fallait cette persévérance et cette abnégation que toute femme vraiment digne de ce nom puise dans sa tendresse, pour la mettre en pratique.

PROJET D'UNE COMMISSION SANITAIRE UNIVERSELLE.

Un citoyen de Genève, M. J.-Henry Dunant, ému des scènes de carnage qui se passaient sous ses yeux, et des souffrances des soldats de tous les partis pendant la guerre d'Italie, conçut la noble pensée de faire participer le monde entier à l'œuvre de Florence Nightingale. Il consacra son temps, son énergie à cette entreprise, et après plusieurs mois de correspondances et de négociations, il eut la satisfaction de voir s'assembler à Genève un Congrès international, composé des délégués de tous les principaux Etats de l'Europe. Des conférences eurent lieu les 26, 27, 28 et 29 octobre 1863. La France, l'Angleterre, l'Autriche, la Russie, la Prusse, l'Italie, la Suisse, la Suède, l'Espagne, la Hollande, les Etats de la Confédération Germanique, y étaient représentés.

Ce n'est point ici le lieu d'analyser les délibérations de cette assemblée, d'autant plus que son action s'est bornée jusqu'à présent à de simples suggestions. Qu'il nous soit permis de remarquer cependant qu'il est peut-être à craindre qu'en voulant par excès de zèle, trop faire à la fois, on arrive à rendre impossible l'exécution d'aucune de ces belles entreprises. Une intervention, quelque insignifiante qu'elle soit, dans le domaine légi-

time du corps médical de l'armée, ne saurait manquer d'exciter son opposition. La discipline, particulièrement en campagne et dans les camps, doit l'emporter sur toute considération d'humanité. L'assistance offerte ne devrait l'être, dans tous les cas, que comme supplémentaire à celle du corps médical, et donnée seulement sous ses auspices. Le caractère officiel des délégués au Congrès de Genève, bien que de nature à donner du poids et de l'autorité à ses délibérations, ne promet pas aux esprits sérieux un résultat favorable. Car, lorsque les gouvernements prennent eux-mêmes en main de semblables entreprises, les populations pensent généralement qu'elles n'ont plus besoin de s'en mêler et que leur concours deviendrait superflu. Le corps médical est aussi plus tenté de considérer la proposition comme un reproche tacite, — comme une accusation de négligence, — et une longue expérience deviendrait alors nécessaire avant que le corps médical et le corps sanitaire apprisse à s'apprécier mutuellement et à travailler ensemble de bon accord. Par-dessus tout, nous pensons que la plus grande erreur a été l'exclusion des femmes de ce mouvement. Elles eussent donné de bons conseils : la chambre des malades et des blessés est le domaine de la femme, et l'homme ne saurait l'y remplacer, quelque bonnes que soient ses intentions.

Le noble projet de M. Henry Dunant n'est pas encore bien mûri. Espérons que lui et les autres philanthropes qui s'associent à ses efforts profiteront de l'expérience des autres, et accompliront glorieusement ce plan dont le seul but est le bien de l'humanité.

II

PROJET D'UNE COMMISSION SANITAIRE AUX ÉTATS-UNIS.

Tournons maintenant nos regards vers la terre lointaine d'Amérique , vers ces champs de bataille arrosés du sang de milliers de soldats, pères, frères, époux. Jamais aucune guerre, soit dans l'antiquité soit dans les temps modernes, ne nous a paru aussi horrible que celle qui déchire maintenant ce pays. Depuis trois ans déjà elle semble chaque jour augmenter d'intensité ; chaque jour l'Amérique est le théâtre de nouvelles horreurs que les écrivains de l'Europe décrivent à l'envi les uns des autres. Dans les proclamations des souverains , dans les discussions des assemblées législatives, dans les journaux, partout enfin on s'accorde pour déplorer la longueur de cette lutte fratricide. Habitués à ne jamais voir envisager la question que sous ce point de vue, les peuples de l'Europe sont fermement convaincus que l'histoire de cette guerre ne sera qu'un monotone récit de massacres, de ruine et de désespoir, sans une lueur de bienfaisance ou d'humanité pour adoucir l'ombre du tableau.

N'est-il pas étrange que quand le mauvais côté d'une question est si bien connu, le bon seul reste entièrement caché ? Et cependant, au milieu du déluge de sang et de feu dans lequel l'Amérique est plongée en ce moment, elle a su donner une forme — imparfaite encore, peut-être, mais pratique — à ce qui n'était ailleurs qu'une

aspiration. Au sein de cette vaste désolation, fruit inévitable d'une telle guerre, des cœurs généreux se sont émus à l'aspect des souffrances des combattants ; et de tendres femmes, des hommes généreux, ont accompli une œuvre que l'Europe n'avait encore qu'entrevue.

Nous ne désirons point discuter ici les motifs ni le but de la guerre civile qui éclata aux Etats-Unis par le bombardement du fort Sumter. La seule chose dont nous voulons nous occuper dans ces pages, c'est l'œuvre de bienfaisance et de philanthropie fondée par les femmes et établie par elles sur une si vaste échelle avec tant de succès. Nous voudrions, en exposant avec autant de clarté qu'il nous sera possible, leurs intentions, leurs plans, et les résultats auxquels elles sont arrivées, amener par leur exemple d'autres peuples à former de semblables organisations en vue des mêmes résultats. C'est un terrain neutre où tous peuvent se rencontrer ; la politique est totalement étrangère à cette question. Il est impossible, (quel que soit le parti auquel on appartient ou que l'on serait disposé à soutenir dans la question américaine), de ne pas se sentir pénétré d'admiration pour le courage avec lequel ces femmes ont surmonté tous les obstacles qu'une pareille entreprise devait nécessairement rencontrer, ou de ne pas souhaiter du succès à leur œuvre de charité et d'humanité.

COMMENCEMENT DE L'ENTREPRISE.

Tandis que dans les Etats du Nord et dans ceux du Sud les hommes se préparaient à la guerre pendant le

printemps de 1861, les femmes du Nord sentaient déjà que, dans la grande lutte qui s'engageait, il y aurait aussi quelque chose à faire pour elles. Elles s'appliquèrent d'abord à fournir au corps médical de l'armée une quantité de charpie et de bandages. Partout, dans les églises, dans les écoles, dans les plus riches salons, des femmes de tout âge et de tout rang se réunissaient pour effiler, couper, rouler le linge qu'elles apportaient. Mais elles sentirent bientôt qu'un champ plus vaste appelait leur activité et leur zèle. Elles organisèrent alors « l'Association centrale de secours des femmes de New-York ; » d'autres sociétés se formèrent dans les différentes villes, et ces courageuses femmes résolurent de consulter des hommes qui, par leur expérience et leur position, pouvaient donner pleine latitude à leurs efforts. Un pasteur de New-York, bien connu pour l'intérêt qu'il prend à toutes les œuvres de charité ou de philanthropie, le R. Dr Henry W. Bellows, leur donna ce conseil pratique : « Il faut que vous obteniez des renseignements aux seules sources authentiques. Assurez-vous d'abord de ce que le gouvernement *veut* et de ce qu'il *peut* faire, et alors aidez-le, en travaillant *avec lui*, et en faisant ce qu'il ne peut pas faire. Les conseils du gouvernement vous sont nécessaires. » Cet avis fut immédiatement suivi. Le R. Dr Bellows et trois des plus éminents médecins de New-York, MM. Van Buren, Harris et Harsen furent autorisés à aller à Washington pour consulter le Ministre de la Guerre. Ces quatre délégués représentaient aussi deux autres puissantes sociétés, à savoir : le Comité des Conseillers du Corps des Médecins et Chirurgiens des

Hôpitaux de New-York, et l'Association Médicale de New-York pour l'approvisionnement des Hôpitaux au profit de l'Armée. Un exposé de leur mission fut présenté par les délégués au Ministre de la Guerre, le 18 mai 1861. Tel fut le commencement de la Société que nous connaissons maintenant sous le nom de Commission sanitaire des Etats-Unis ; Société dont les opérations embrassent un champ presque aussi étendu que l'Europe entière, et dont les contributions volontaires pour le soulagement de ceux qui souffrent se sont élevées, en moins de trois ans, à la somme énorme de cinquante millions de francs.

DIFFICULTÉS.

On ne saurait certes agir vis-à-vis d'un gouvernement avec plus de modération et de respect que ne le firent les délégués des trois sociétés patriotiques de New-York ; cependant les autorités ne leur furent pas favorables au premier abord. La routine, si nécessaire en matière d'administration, est naturellement opposée aux innovations. Nous ne devons donc pas être surpris que le Président Lincoln ait appelé la Commission proposée « une cinquième roue au carrosse militaire. » Les chefs du Ministère de la Guerre, et en particulier ceux du Bureau Médical de l'Armée, reçurent d'abord de la manière la plus décourageante les offres de service des délégués. Mais les femmes des Etats-Unis restèrent inébranlables dans leur résolution, et ici encore se vérifia le dicton : « Ce que femme veut, Dieu le veut. »

Quatre jours après la présentation de l'exposé par les

délégués, le Dr R. C. Wood, chirurgien en chef *pro temp.* de l'armée des Etats-Unis, émit l'opinion suivante dans une communication adressée au Ministre de la Guerre :

« Le Bureau Médical pourrait, à mon avis, trouver « une assistance importante dans les conseils et les efforts « bien dirigés d'une Commission intelligente et scienti- « fique (que l'on pourrait nommer une « Commission de « Recherches et de Conseils au sujet des Intérêts sani- « taires des forces des Etats-Unis »), agissant en coopéra- « tion avec le Bureau, pour étudier et appliquer les faits « que l'expérience et les observations plus complètes des « personnes attachées aux armées pourront révéler en ce « qui regarde la nourriture et l'hygiène des troupes, et « l'organisation des hôpitaux militaires. »

Profitant de l'encouragement qui leur était ainsi donné, les quatre délégués ne perdirent pas un moment, et le lendemain même ils envoyèrent au Ministre de la Guerre l'aperçu ci-joint de l'autorisation demandée et du but de la Commission :

« Le Bureau Médical de l'Armée des Etats-Unis ayant de- « mandé qu'il soit nommé une Commission sanitaire pour le « soulager dans l'exécution de sa tâche, le Comité délégué de « New-York au Gouvernement pour les affaires sanitaires prend « la liberté, à la requête du Bureau Médical, et comme expres- « sion de ses désirs, de définir positivement quels pouvoirs elle « désire obtenir, et quels sont les résultats vers lesquels elle « tend. »

POUVOIRS DEMANDÉS AU GOUVERNEMENT.

« 1. La Commission étant organisée dans le seul but de cher-

« cher et de conseiller, ne demande point d'autorité, mais seulement d'être reconnue officiellement et d'obtenir l'appui moral du Gouvernement, ce qu'elle obtiendrait par une nomination publique. Elle demande qu'un ordre la recommandant soit adressé à tous les officiers du Gouvernement pour faciliter ses recherches, et qu'il lui soit permis de correspondre et de conférer d'une manière confidentielle avec le Bureau Médical et le département de la Guerre, présentant les suggestions aux quelles ses investigations et ses études pourront à diverses époques donner lieu. »

2. « La Commission ne désire aucune rétribution péculiaire du Gouvernement. Basée sur des motifs d'humanité et de patriotisme, son œuvre sera la seule récompense des membres qui la composent. Leur seul désir serait qu'une chambre garnie des fournitures de bureaux nécessaires leur fût assignée dans quelqu'un des édifices publics. »

3. « La Commission demande l'autorisation de demeurer en permanence pendant la guerre, soit à Washington soit ailleurs, où ce lui semblera le plus avantageux et le plus commode. Mais elle se dissoudrait immédiatement si l'expérience démontrait que ses opérations embarrassent le Gouvernement, ou si son utilité n'était pas aussi grande qu'on peut le supposer. »

BUT DE LA COMMISSION.

« Le but général de la Commission est d'employer au profit du bien-être, aussi bien physique que moral de nos troupes, tout ce que la science sanitaire appliquée à la vie militaire peut nous apprendre, soit comme déductions de la théorie, soit comme principes généraux de l'hygiène, soit comme expérience acquise dans les guerres de Crimée, des Indes et d'Italie. Elle aura soin de soumettre à cet effet ses suggestions au Bureau Médical et au département de la Guerre. Son but est exclusivement de conseiller.

« Les points principaux vers lesquels son attention se dirigera

« peuvent être en partie indiqués dès à présent. Mais d'autres dépendront nécessairement des événements et des résultats de ses propres observations à mesure qu'elle avancera dans ses travaux. Si elle savait précisément quel sera le résultat de ses recherches, elle le ferait immédiatement connaître, sans recourir pour cela à l'autorisation et aux facilités qu'elle demande en ce moment. Le Gouvernement peut choisir lui-même les membres de la Commission (les personnes nommées dans la recommandation du Bureau Médical consentant à servir, mais ne le désirant en aucune manière si d'autres personnes possédant à un plus haut degré la confiance du gouvernement et du public peuvent être nommées). On espère donc que le caractère de la Commission sera pour le Gouvernement la meilleure garantie que ses recherches, tant par leur nature que par la manière de les conduire, resteront dans les bornes de la plus parfaite discréction, et qu'elle évitera toute intervention intempestive ou désagréable dans les attributions légales et les droits officiels des bureaux avec lesquels elle pourra se trouver en contact. »

SPÉCIFICATION DES POINTS PRINCIPAUX SUR LESQUELS
PORTERONT LES ENQUÊTES DE LA COMMISSION.

« I. *Matériel des corps volontaires.* — La Commission se propose une enquête pratique dans le matériel des forces volontaires, à l'égard des lois et des usages des divers Etats en ce qui regarde l'inspection médicale. Elle espère concilier ces règlements avec ceux de l'armée régulière, tant en ce qui regarde la nomination des officiers médicaux et autres, que dans l'application de principes et de règles équitables aux lois du recrutement et de l'inspection. Cette enquête devra épouser chaque question portant sur le matériel originel de l'armée, considéré comme objet de soins sanitaires et médicaux. »

« II. *Précautions.* — La Comission s'occupera d'une manière scientifique et approfondie de la nourriture, de la cuis-

« son des aliments, de l'habillement, des tentes, des camps,
« des transports, des dépôts transitoires, etc., dans le but de
« se rendre compte jusqu'à quel point les règlements de l'ar-
« mée régulière sont pratiqués dans les régiments volontaires
« ou peuvent l'être, et quelles modifications seraient convena-
« bles en raison de leur caractère particulier et des circon-
« stances. Tout ce qui concerne l'équipement, la propreté, les
« mesures de précaution contre le froid, la chaleur, l'humidité,
« les miasmes, les affections contagieuses, la mauvaise qualité,
« le manque de variété et la mauvaise préparation des aliments,
« ainsi que les irrégularités et la négligence dans le commis-
« sariat, appartiendrait à cette section. »

« III. *Secours.* — La Commission s'enquerra de l'organisa-
« tion des hôpitaux militaires, tant généraux que particuliers
« aux divers régiments ; des circonstances et des conditions
« dans lesquelles des femmes pourraient être utiles comme
« gardes-malades volontaires ; des approvisionnements des hôpi-
« taux, tant comme nature que comme qualité et comme quan-
« tité ; de la manière d'obtenir et de régler l'emploi des pro-
« visions extraordinaires accordées pour le soulagement des
« malades ; des questions d'ambulances et de service médical
« sur les champs de bataille, ainsi que des secours médicaux
« extraordinaires et de tout ce qui se rapporte au soin, au sou-
« lagement et à la guérison des malades et des blessés. Ces
« enquêtes seront basées sur les recherches médicales et mili-
« taires les plus récentes et les plus réputées. Elles seront soi-
« gneusement adaptées aux besoins et à la nature de notre ar-
« mée actuelle, en vue de son origine et des circonstances
« particulières dans lesquelles elle se trouve.

« Présenté respectueusement, au nom de la délégation de
« New-York.

« HENRY W. BELLows, président;
« WILLIAM H. VAN BUREN, D. M. ;
« JACOB HARSEN, D. M. ;
« ELISHA HARRIS, D. M. »

Ces offres faites au Gouvernement semblaient indiquer qu'après tout la Commission sanitaire proposée pouvait bien être une association fort inoffensive et bien intentionnée. Cependant les pouvoirs demandés, ainsi qu'on le verra ci-après, étaient fort étendus. Mais les délégués de New-York se montrèrent à la hauteur de leur mission, en évitant tout ce qui pouvait ressembler à de l'exigence, et en se soumettant en toutes choses aux autorités militaires et médicales de l'armée. Ils étaient du reste les premiers à reconnaître non-seulement l'utilité, mais la nécessité absolue des formalités administratives en tout ce qui concerne les armées.

III

LA COMMISSION SANITAIRE EST ORGANISÉE.

Le Ministre de la Guerre donna enfin son approbation à la Commission proposée, le 9 juin 1861, mais avec peu de sympathie pour l'œuvre, et sans confiance dans son résultat. Ce fut seulement le 13 juin que la Commission obtint la sanction du Président, sous cette forme concise : « Approuvé le ci-dessus, A. LINCOLN, » apposée au bas du décret du Ministre de la Guerre.

La dernière phrase du décret est caractéristique « La Commission continuera d'exister jusqu'à ce que le Ministre de la Guerre en décide autrement, à moins qu'elle ne se dissolve plus tôt d'elle-même. » C'était assez montrer que l'on ne croyait pas à sa durée. Cependant les recherches déjà faites par les quatre délégués de-

puis leur arrivée à Washington n'avaient pas révélé un état de choses fort encourageant. Du reste l'armée américaine, à la voix du Président, demandant 75,000 volontaires, était soudainement montée de 20,000 hommes *sur le papier*, à 80,000 hommes *d'effectif*, et l'on ne pouvait raisonnablement s'attendre à ce que l'Administration organisée sur la base du premier chiffre se trouvât tout d'un coup suffisante pour le second. Le *North American Review* de janvier 1864, fait le tableau suivant de l'état des choses à Washington à cette époque :

« Durant la première année de la guerre, l'industrie « manufacturière de notre pays ne suffisait pas à satis- « faire les besoins immédiats de l'armée. Les soldats se « recrutaient plus rapidement que l'on ne pouvait con- « fectionner les uniformes. Le Gouvernement fut obligé « d'importer lui-même du drap pour ne pas payer le « prix exorbitant demandé par quelques égoïstes déten- « deurs des étoffes voulues. De plus, les idées des di- « verses branches de l'Administration ne grandissaient « pas en proportion des nécessités extraordinaires de « l'armée. La prudence et la timidité retenaient les plus « courageux. Les soldats souffraient du manque de cou- « vertures, de bas, de capotes, et de tentes. Les hôpitaux « des régiments, dirigés par des chirurgiens nouveaux « dans cette position, et étrangers à la routine adminis- « trative, étaient souvent dans le plus déplorable dénû- « ment non-seulement des choses que le Gouvernement « ne pouvait leur fournir alors, mais même de celles « qu'ils eussent pu avoir, s'ils avaient su où et comment « les demander. On commençait seulement alors à éta-

« blir des hôpitaux généraux. Les seuls bâtiments que « l'on pût se procurer dans ce but étaient incommodes, « et de toutes façons impropres à cette destination ; ce- « pendant le Gouvernement ne sentait pas encore la « nécessité de construire des bâtiments spéciaux et con- « venables. La caisse des hôpitaux, ressource maintenant « ordinaire des chirurgiens de l'armée pour tous les « approvisionnements et secours extraordinaires, et qui « est partout en activité, ne pouvait pas être organisée de « prime abord, même par les personnes les plus compé- « tentes, et était entièrement au-dessus des forces des « commençants quant à sa direction. Pendant plu- « sieurs mois il fut impossible de compter sur elle, et « ses efforts se firent peu sentir durant la première année « de la guerre. »

C'est à ce moment de perplexité et de besoin que l'association volontaire cherchant à être constituée en Commission sanitaire offrit ses services.

Les délégués et leurs constituants, loin de s'effrayer à la vue des difficultés que présentait l'état des choses, ne sentirent que mieux la nécessité de leur entreprise, et ayant obtenu du Gouvernement tout ce qu'ils lui demandaient, — le droit d'exister, de travailler et de conseiller, — ils se mirent immédiatement à l'œuvre pour organiser dans le Nord les secours à envoyer aux soldats.

LA COMMISSION SE MET A L'ŒUVRE.

Il y avait déjà plusieurs Sociétés organisées pour secourir les soldats ; mais elles manquaient plus ou moins de système arrêté, et péchaient par conséquent par la

base. Des Etats, des districts, des villes même, avaient vu surgir des Comités particuliers, qui recevaient des dons en argent et en nature au profit des volontaires de leurs localités; mais ces Comités découvrirent bientôt les difficultés qu'ils ne pouvaient manquer de rencontrer quand il s'agissait de secourir des régiments à des centaines de lieues, et sujets à être envoyés d'un bout à l'autre d'un Etat, — c'est-à-dire à une distance égale à la longueur de la France, — sans que le public en soit informé. La Commission sanitaire eut d'abord quelque peine à faire entendre à ces associations particulières que les intérêts des troupes pour l'avantage desquelles elles s'étaient formées, seraient mieux sauvegardés par une puissante organisation nationale que par de simples Comités municipaux, ou des Sociétés locales. Une à une cependant elles se rattachèrent à la Commission; en peu de temps les femmes du Nord entier s'étaient organisées en Associations Auxiliaires dans toutes les villes et les villages, et travaillaient de tout leur cœur au profit de la Commission. On pourra se faire une idée de l'importance qu'a acquise cette Société quand l'on saura qu'elle compte aujourd'hui plus de 32,000 de ces Associations Auxiliaires dans les Etats du Nord.

Pour subvenir aux besoins sans cesse grandissants de l'armée, et pour organiser la distribution des objets envoyés de toutes parts en abondance, les membres de la Commission se trouvèrent bientôt insuffisants; ils cherchèrent immédiatement à s'adjointre d'autres personnes. Le Comité permanent fut élevé à vingt et un membres, comprenant plusieurs des noms les mieux connus parmi

les médecins et les philanthropes américains. Parmi eux nous ne pouvons nous dispenser de citer M. Frédéric Law Olmsted, dont les ouvrages sur les ressources agricoles et autres des Etats du Sud, ont rendu le nom célèbre dans le monde savant. Il occupait une place élevée comme ingénieur municipal de la ville de New-York; mais au premier appel de la Commission sanitaire, dont le but avait toutes ses sympathies, il renonça à sa brillante position pour accepter le poste de secrétaire et gérant de l'association, sous la direction du Comité.

On nomma ensuite des Membres Associés au Comité central. C'étaient des personnes choisies par leur position et leur volonté d'user de leur influence et de leur temps pour le bien de l'armée, sans récompense autre que le sentiment du devoir accompli. Ces membres sont chargés de faire connaître à ceux qui les entourent les besoins et le but de la Commission, et d'engager tous ceux qui désirent faire quelque chose pour les soldats à se mettre en rapport avec l'Association. Des milliers de circulaires imprimées furent distribuées partout, faisant connaître les besoins de l'armée et en particulier des hôpitaux militaires. Tous les maîtres de poste du Nord reçurent une proclamation (qu'on les priaît de répandre le plus possible) invitant les habitants, et principalement les femmes, à s'organiser en Associations Auxiliaires. Les éditeurs des journaux (et aux Etats-Unis il y a 4,052 journaux et revues, ayant une circulation annuelle de 927,951,548 exemplaires¹) furent invités à discuter la

¹ Voir *les Etats-Unis d'Amérique en 1863*, par M. John Bigelow, consul des Etats-Unis, à Paris. — Paris, chez L. Hachette et C°. 1863. In-8°.

question dans leurs colonnes. On fit comprendre aux présidents et directeurs des compagnies d'assurances sur la vie qu'elles avaient un intérêt particulier au bien-être et à la santé des soldats. En un mot, un appel fut adressé à toutes les classes de la société, qui furent intéressées dans le mouvement et se mirent en devoir de travailler pour les soldats tandis que ceux-ci combattaient pour elles.

LA QUESTION DES TRANSPORTS.

Les femmes ayant enfin trouvé une manière pratique de témoigner leur patriotisme et la part qu'elles prennent aux fatigues des soldats, et sachant aussi quels objets étaient immédiatement nécessaires à l'armée, se mirent à l'œuvre avec un zèle et une énergie dont les hommes font rarement preuve. De nouvelles difficultés surgissaient cependant à chaque pas devant la Commission. Les maisons particulières, les magasins, les écoles, les églises même étaient encombrés de ballots et de paquets d'habillements et d'autres objets destinés aux malades, attendant l'ordre d'expédition du quartier général. La question de transport dans un pays aussi étendu que les Etats-Unis offrait de grandes difficultés non-seulement à cause du nombre *proportionnellement* petit de chemins de fer, de canaux, etc.¹, mais aussi en raison de la rivalité des différents Etats entre eux au commencement de la guerre. Le principe de la « souveraineté individuelle

¹ Les 60,000 kilomètres de chemins de fer et les 6,000 kilomètres de canaux que possèdent les Etats-Unis sont encore peu de chose comparés à l'étendue du pays.

des Etats, » et le désir général de maintenir l'intégrité et l'autonomie de chacun, présentèrent un grand obstacle aux efforts de la Commission. Néanmoins cette jalouse d'Etat à Etat, que le gouvernement avait été impuissant à surmonter, la Commission sanitaire, guidée par ses aspirations de bienfaisance, réussit enfin à la vaincre. On résolut de traiter le pays non comme une société d'Etats souverains ligués dans un but commun, mais comme un tout indivisible ; d'effacer, pour ainsi dire, les anciennes lignes de séparation et d'en former de nouvelles sections dont les cours d'eau navigables, les routes et les chemins de fer formeraient les bases. Des dépôts principaux furent établis dans les grandes villes pour recevoir les contributions de toute nature des villes et villages circonvoisins ; ainsi cent vingt villes devinrent auxiliaires de la section de la Commission à Cleveland, dans l'Etat de l'Ohio ; douze cent trente-six villes de celle de New-York, etc. Le Comité permanent à Washington fut dès lors à même de régler et de diriger la bienfaisance du pays entier vers les points nécessiteux, et se trouva en même temps débarrassé d'une portion onéreuse et inutile de ses premiers labeurs, en ne correspondant plus qu'avec les dépôts généraux.

INSPECTION DES CAMPS ET DES HÔPITAUX.

Tandis que la Commission organisait ainsi des sociétés par tout le pays pour ses opérations futures, elle ne perdait point de vue le but essentiel pour lequel elle avait

été créée. Des inspecteurs avaient dès l'abord été envoyés pour s'enquérir de l'état des camps et des hôpitaux, non-seulement sous le rapport sanitaire, mais aussi en vue de tout ce qui peut mettre le soldat plus en état de remplir ses devoirs, en dehors des considérations purement militaires. Les enquêtes étaient généralement faites de concert par deux inspecteurs dont l'un était un médecin d'un talent reconnu, et l'autre, la plupart du temps, un pasteur. Il leur était enjoint de se présenter au général ou à l'officier commandant aussitôt leur arrivée au poste qui leur était assigné, de se mettre sans retard en communication amicale avec les officiers de santé, et de demander les renseignements notés dans leurs instructions. Après avoir visité les hôpitaux, les camps, et les troupes même, ils envoyait leurs rapports, qui étaient toujours confidentiels, au Comité central, à Washington. Déjà plus de deux mille rapports ont été ainsi fournis, et tout nous porte à croire que cette association volontaire de bienfaisance possède des renseignements plus complets et plus importants en ce qui concerne l'état sanitaire des troupes en campagne que l'on ne pourrait en trouver nulle part ailleurs. Chaque inspecteur, dans son rapport, est tenu de répondre par écrit à cent quatre-vingts questions imprimées, sur tout ce qui peut intéresser le bien-être et la santé des soldats, sous toutes les latitudes et à toutes les époques de l'année.

Le département médical de l'armée s'était affaibli pendant les longues années de paix qui précédèrent la révolte du Sud. Il était nécessaire de le réorganiser ; mais le gouvernement était récemment installé et ne pré-

voyait point encore toute la grandeur de la tâche qu'il aurait à remplir. On se contenta de nommer un nouveau chirurgien-major, tout en conservant l'ancienne organisation. Cet officier se montra dès le commencement hostile à la Commission, déclarant qu'il ne voulait pas en entendre parler, etc.; mais comme son opposition ne pouvait détruire l'autorisation accordée par le Ministre de la Guerre et sanctionnée par le Président, il se décida enfin à permettre à la Commission de faire ce qu'elle voudrait au sujet des volontaires, à la condition qu'elle ne se mêlerait point des troupes régulières.

La Commission sanitaire, autorisée par le Président et le Ministre de la Guerre à poursuivre son œuvre, eût pu se passer de l'assentiment du chirurgien-major, mais dans cette occasion, comme toujours, elle tenait à n'agir qu'avec le concours des autorités médicales aussi bien que militaires de l'armée, modération à laquelle elle dut de voir bientôt disparaître les soupçons jaloux et le mauvais vouloir dont elle avait d'abord été l'objet.

Le Gouvernement, cependant, ne jugeant point le chirurgien-major dont nous venons de parler à la hauteur des besoins du moment, il fut résolu qu'on en nommerait un autre. Cette nomination dépendait du Président, mais on savait que l'opinion du Ministre de la Guerre aurait beaucoup d'influence sur son choix. En s'écartant de la règle d'ancienneté il y avait grand danger que les protections ne l'emportassent sur le mérite, et cependant il importait que ce poste fût donné à l'homme le plus capable, sans distinction de rang ni d'âge. Dans ces circonstances la Commission résolut de faire aussi un

choix et de présenter respectueusement son candidat au Président. Tandis que le projet de loi médicale était en discussion au Congrès, le Comité permanent, comprenant plusieurs des praticiens les plus éminents des Etats-Unis, se mit à la recherche d'une personne possédant les connaissances scientifiques et les qualités administratives nécessaires dans cette position. Son choix se fixa sur le docteur W. A. Hammond, aide-chirurgien de l'état-major médical. Après quelque hésitation, M. Lincoln se décida à présenter au Congrès le nom du candidat de la Commission et il fut élu. De simple premier lieutenant, directeur d'un seul hôpital, M. Hammond passa immédiatement au rang de brigadier général, et eut toute la responsabilité du département médical d'une armée aussi nombreuse que celle d'aucune puissance de l'Europe. Les résultats de sa nomination ont répondu aux espérances de ses amis et satisfait aux besoins du pays. Le *Medical Times*, de Londres, en date du 12 octobre 1863, dit du Dr Hammond : « Faisant la part des « exagérations habituelles de l'autre côté de l'Atlantique, « il paraît avoir réellement bien accompli sa tâche. « Nommé par le Président, en dépit des usages habi- « tuels, par-dessus la tête des anciens, il apportait à son « œuvre la force de sa maturité et une robuste constitu- « tion. Il s'entoura courageusement de personnes dé- « vouées, en destituant un grand nombre qu'il pensait « ne pas être à la hauteur des circonstances, et il pour- « suivit vigoureusement sa carrière. Il fallait subvenir « aux besoins de grandes armées, organiser un système « d'hôpitaux militaires, établir des comités d'inspection,

« fonder une école et un musée médical militaire. Dans « toutes ces grandes et utiles entreprises il semble avoir « réussi au delà de toutes les espérances.»

Il reconnut l'utilité des travaux de la Commission sanitaire, et depuis son élection ce corps devint ce qu'il devait être, l'aide du corps médical et l'ami toujours présent des malades et des blessés.

MALADIES DANS LES DIFFÉRENTES PARTIES DU PAYS.

Quand le Dr Hammond eut pris charge du département médical de l'armée, la Commission sanitaire put donner toute son attention à son but originel. Pour mieux combattre la révolte, le théâtre de la guerre avait été divisé par le gouvernement en départements militaires; ceux-ci étaient généralement déterminés par les bassins des grands fleuves tels que le Potomac, le Mississippi, le Cumberland et le Tennessee; mais il y avait aussi ceux de la Caroline du Nord, de la Caroline du Sud, et celui des régions montagneuses de la Virginie. Ces départements diffèrent les uns des autres sous tous les rapports, et l'on peut dire que toutes les latitudes et tous les climats de l'Europe s'y trouvent représentés. Des maladies exerçant de grands ravages dans un de ces départements sont parfois totalement inconnues dans d'autres; des maladies miasmatiques étrangères aux armées européennes rendent nécessaires des recherches sur la manière de les traiter. La Commission s'efforce de se procurer à l'avance des renseignements sur la destination et les déplacements des divers corps d'armée, et aussitôt

qu'elle les obtient, elle envoie sur les lieux des médecins et des chirurgiens qui s'enquièrent auprès des habitants des maladies principales de la localité. Leurs rapports à la Commission fournissent en même temps la description des mesures préventives à adopter contre ces maladies, du traitement suivi habituellement, et des meilleurs moyens d'envoyer des approvisionnements.

TRANSPORTS DES HÔPITAUX.

Au commencement de la guerre les opérations militaires des deux côtés eurent pour bases les cours d'eau navigables. Fédéraux et séparatistes y étaient forcés par la nature du pays, les chemins de fer étant peu nombreux dans le Sud, et n'ayant jamais qu'une voie, tandis que les routes ordinaires y sont presque inconnues, et que celles qui existent sont impraticables durant la moitié de l'année. En conséquence, la Commission sanitaire émit le conseil d'organiser un système de transports, et, donnant l'exemple, elle prit à sa solde plusieurs grands bateaux à vapeur de rivières, et les transforma en hôpitaux. Elle y plaça ses propres chirurgiens, des gardes-malades exercés, des médicaments et des provisions, et les envoya sur le théâtre des opérations militaires.

Pour ne donner qu'un exemple de l'utilité dont furent ces hôpitaux flottants, nous citerons la campagne de la péninsule de Yorktown, en 1862. La base des opérations du général Mc Clellan contre Richmond était les rivières d'York et de Pamunkey. Jusqu'au moment où

les insurgés eurent tourné le flanc droit de l'armée de l'Union , l'obligeant à battre en retraite des lignes du Chickahominy, vers la fin de juin, les malades et les blessés de l'armée nationale étaient transportés à West-Point, sur le Pamunkey. Les hôpitaux généraux de l'armée y étaient établis, mais ils furent bientôt encombrés ; le climat de cette localité était brûlant et malsain , et le corps médical insuffisant. Aussitôt que les vaisseaux-hôpitaux arrivèrent, les malades furent transportés par la voie des rivières du Pamunkey et d'York jusqu'au fort Munroe, à l'embouchure de la Chesapeake. Là, profitant de la brise rafraîchissante de la mer , et à douze heures seulement de Baltimore par la vapeur, ils purent obtenir tous les secours nécessaires , et s'il en était besoin , être transportés directement au nord.

Les steamers des fleuves américains sont particulièrement propres à un tel service. Toute la machine est au-dessus de la ligne de flottaison ; ils ne tirent que quelques pieds d'eau , et des cabines sont établies les unes au-dessus des autres , le navire en offrant parfois trois étages. Les fenêtres sont grandes et les plafonds élevés, fournissant en abondance cet élément essentiel à un hôpital, de l'air pur , même lorsqu'il y a de huit cents à mille personnes à bord.

Il ne sera pas hors de propos de donner ici quelque idée de l'œuvre qui s'accomplit sur ces hôpitaux flottants de la Commission sanitaire. Les femmes, ici aussi, sont l'âme et la vie de ces établissements, surpassant les hommes mêmes en courage et en énergie. Elles appartiennent presque toutes aux familles les plus riches

et les plus considérées, car on regarde comme un grand honneur d'être employé « en campagne » par la Commission. Ceci est d'autant plus surprenant que l'on ne se serait pas attendu à ce que des habitudes de luxe et de confortable les aient préparées à aller à la rencontre des périls et des privations qu'il leur faut endurer dans ces expéditions.

D'un ouvrage récemment publié sur la Commission sanitaire par une de ses gardes-malades, compatriote de Florence Nightingale, nous extrayons les épisodes suivants :

« A minuit deux steamers accostèrent le *Elm City* (vaisseau-hôpital), apportant chacun cent malades, et nous annoncèrent que le *Daniel Webster*, n° 2 (steamer de transport du gouvernement), était échoué à peu de distance avec deux cents malades; de plus, personne pour les soigner, et rien à manger. Il fallait nécessairement s'en occuper. Ainsi à travers un magnifique et terrible ouragan, accompagné d'éclairs et de tonnerre, quatre d'entre nous se mirent en chemin dans un petit bateau, avec du thé, du pain, de l'eau-de-vie et du bouillon. (On ne saurait croire combien cela m'agace les nerfs d'errer la nuit dans de petits bateaux et de monter sur des vaisseaux par de petites échelles.) Nous leur donnâmes à manger, comme de coutume. Pauvres gens, ils étaient presque fous de joie! Puis le *Wissahickon* nous aborda pour les transporter à bord de l'*Elm City*. Une partie seulement d'entre eux trouvèrent place au premier voyage. Dr Ware, toujours plein de prévenance, me fit partir avec eux pour m'éviter d'avoir à revenir dans le petit bateau. Au moment où nous nous mettions en route, la vapeur s'arrêta, et nous commençâmes à dériver vers la terre. L'*Elm City* fut obligé de nous envoyer un câble par un bateau pour nous tirer. Pendant tout le temps le tonnerre ne cessait de gronder, la

pluie tombait par torrents, et à chaque instant de brillants éclairs illuminaient la scène. »

Une autre dit :

« Nous reçumes l'ordre de nous rendre à bord du *Wissahickon*, de là sur le *Sea Shore*, et d'aller avec ce dernier à West-Point, pour en ramener vingt-cinq hommes que l'on disait malades et sans secours. Deux médecins vinrent avec nous. Après avoir cherché le *Sea Shore* en vain pendant une heure, et étant arrivés jusqu'en face de Cumberland, nous décidâmes (*nous* ici signifie Madame *** et moi, car les médecins étaient nouveaux, obéissants et très satisfaits de nous laisser toute la responsabilité, à nous femmes), nous décidâmes de continuer notre route dans le remorqueur plutôt que de laisser les malades une nuit sans abri, d'autant plus qu'il avait plu et fait du vent tout le jour. Le pilote voulut faire des observations, mais le capitaine nous approuva, et si les chauffeurs n'eussent pas laissé tout d'un coup éteindre les feux, ce qui nous fit perdre deux heures, nous eussions pu prendre les malades à bord et être de retour peu de temps après la tombée de la nuit. Mais ce retard nous fit perdre l'avantage si précieux de la lumière. Il faisait nuit avant que tous les hommes fussent transportés sur le vaisseau. Ils étaient cinquante-six, dont dix très malades. Le remorqueur avait une petite cabine. Nous mettions des matelas par terre, tandis que les médecins cherchaient les malades, quand le capitaine vint nous interrompre, refusant de laisser mettre les malades de la fièvre typhoïde sous le pont, à cause de l'équipage, disait-il, et menaçant de s'éloigner immédiatement du rivage. Nous le regardâmes, Madame *** et moi. Je pris le rôle menaçant, elle le pathétique, enfin il céda. Le voyage de retour fut assez inquiet. La rivière était très encombrée de débris de bateaux et de troncs d'arbres; la nuit était noire, et il nous fallait avancer pour ainsi dire à tâtons, diminuant de vitesse toutes les dix minutes. Ce n'eût rien été si nous eussions été seules; mais d'avoir sur les bras cinquante hommes incapables de bou-

ger était une responsabilité trop grande pour que nous n'en fussions pas préoccupées. Le capitaine et le pilote dirent que le navire faisait eau, ajoutant d'un air sombre que la rivière avait à peu près six brasses de profondeur à cet endroit. Mais comme nous devinions leurs motifs, ces paroles ne nous effrayèrent pas. A minuit nous abordâmes le *Spaulding* sains et saufs; mais le ton de M. Olmsted en nous disant : « Vous ne sauriez « croire combien je suis heureux de vous voir, » nous montra combien il avait été tourmenté à notre sujet. Et cependant, c'était ce que nous pouvions faire de mieux, car trois, et peut-être cinq, des hommes eussent été morts le lendemain matin. Aujourd'hui (dimanche) ils vivent, et il y a espoir de les sauver. *Est-ce dimanche?* Quels dimanches nous avons eus! Je pense à vous tous, si tranquilles, n'entendant que le son des cloches de l'église, avec un sentiment singulier de la distance qui nous sépare. »

Un autre épisode nous rapporte un trait véritablement héroïque. Et ici remarquons en passant que la Commission sanitaire ne garde à son service personne qui se montre le moins du monde craintif sous le feu de l'ennemi ou dans aucun autre danger. L'incident en question arriva après la retraite de Chickahominy, quand l'armée du Potomac venait d'arriver à la rivière James.

« Nous arrivâmes à Harrison's Bar à onze heures du matin, le 1^{er} juillet, et régumes l'ordre de remonter la rivière James jusqu'à Carter's Landing. Il nous fallait pour cela passer sous le feu des batteries de City-Point (batteries appartenant aux révoltés). L'on nous dit que nous pouvions le faire sans danger en arborant un pavillon jaune; mais nous n'en avions pas; nous résolûmes par conséquent de nous fier au pavillon rouge de la Commission sanitaire, et nous nous mêmes en route. Le *Galena*

(navire fédéral cuirassé) nous cria de nous tenir sous le pont en passant devant les batteries. Peu de temps après, nous rencontrâmes le *Monitor* (autre navire cuirassé), dont le capitaine nous réitera cet avis, ajoutant qu'il nous suivrait s'il entendait tirer. Notre canon était pointé vers le rivage, et nous continuions notre chemin. Après que nous eûmes quitté le *Monitor*, notre capitaine vint à moi et me dit : « Je prendrai ces matelas « dont vous parliez. » Nous avions plaisanté, ainsi que cela arriva, au sujet de notre danger, et j'avais proposé d'entourer de matelas la dunette, sans penser que cet avis donné en riant pût jamais être suivi. Mais le capitaine était sérieux, — il ne fut jamais autrement. Ainsi les *Contrebandes*¹ apportèrent les matelas, les empilèrent autour de la dunette, et le pilote, protégé de plus par un matelas attaché dans les cordages, se tint adossé à un mât. Une heure après, nous étions hors du danger, et nous arrivions à Carter's Landing, où nous trouvâmes l'armée, — ou du moins ce qui en restait. »

Honneur aux femmes ! Elles sont les mêmes partout, toujours aimantes, dévouées, et ne comptant pour rien leur sûreté personnelle lorsqu'il s'agit de soulager ceux qui souffrent !

PUBLICATIONS MÉDICALES DE LA SOCIÉTÉ SANITAIRE.

Le manque d'expérience des officiers de santé de

¹ Depuis le commencement de la guerre on donna ce nom aux nègres libérés par les armées de l'Union ; voici à quelle occasion : le général Butler, lorsqu'il commandait à Fort Munroe, écrivit au Ministre de la Guerre pour lui demander ce qu'il devait faire des nègres « qui n'avaient pas fui leurs maîtres, mais que leurs maîtres avaient abandonnés — en se sauvant ; » ajoutant que, comme ils étaient utiles à la guerre, ils devaient être, ainsi que toutes les autres possessions des révoltés, susceptibles du même emploi, considérés comme « contrebande de guerre ; » et ce nom leur est resté.

l'armée avait dès le début attiré l'attention de la Commission. Presque tous les chirurgiens et aides-chirurgiens ignoraient cette partie spéciale de la science médicale qui se rapporte aux armées en campagne. Le gouvernement, d'un autre côté, avait trop à faire pour pouvoir s'occuper de leur donner les instructions nécessaires. La Commission sanitaire alors nomma dans son sein un comité spécial chargé de préparer une série de rapports sur la chirurgie militaire et les sujets s'y rattachant. La liste suivante des brochures publiées par ce comité donnera une idée de cette œuvre :

La douleur et les anesthésiques, par le Dr Valentin Mott, le doyen de la chirurgie en Amérique.

Conseil sur l'établissement des camps, publié par la Commission sanitaire d'Angleterre durant la guerre de Crimée.

Rapport sur l'hygiène et la thérapeutique militaires.

Instructions aux chirurgiens militaires sur le champ de bataille, par G.-J. Guthrie, chirurgien-major des forces anglaises durant la guerre de Crimée (réimprimé par la Commission).

Règles pour conserver la santé des soldats.

Du quinine, comme remède prophylactique des maladies miasmatiques.

Rapport sur l'importance de la vaccination dans l'armée.

Rapport sur les amputations.

Rapport sur les amputations au pied et à la cheville.

Rapport sur les maladies vénériennes.

Rapport sur la pneumonie.

Rapport sur les fièvres continues.

Rapport sur l'excision des articulations pour causes traumatiques.

Rapport sur la dyssenterie.

Rapport sur le scorbut.

Rapport sur le traitement des fractures dans l'armée.

Rapport sur la nature et le traitement des fièvres miasmatiques.

Rapport sur la nature et le traitement de la fièvre jaune.

De l'hémorragie des blessures et des meilleurs moyens de la combattre, par le Dr Valentin Mott.

Notes sur les moyens de prévenir les maladies contagieuses dans les camps, les bâtiments de transport et les hôpitaux.

Tous ces documents sont distribués gratuitement aux membres du corps médical de l'armée.

Lors même que la Commission sanitaire se fût bornée à publier ces rapports et ces renseignements, elle eût déjà bien mérité de l'armée et du pays ; car les chirurgiens des régiments, presque tous récemment passés de la vie civile à leur nouvelle position, étaient généralement peu initiés aux devoirs et aux exigences de leur charge.

LA CUISINE DES CAMPS.

La cuisson des aliments destinés aux soldats est une question d'une grande importance, et qui attira bientôt l'attention de la Commission. Il y avait beaucoup à faire sous ce rapport. La ration du soldat américain surpassait grandement en quantité et en variété celle du soldat d'aucune autre nation ; mais les Américains sont d'assez

pauvres cuisiniers, et la quantité même de la nourriture, quand elle était mal préparée, devenait une grande cause de maladie pour les troupes. Règle générale, la cuisine en campagne, consistait à rôtir (ou plutôt à brûler) de la viande fraîchement tuée, sur un feu construit à terre. Dans ce procédé l'économie du combustible est ordinairement une considération secondaire, et il arrive quelquefois qu'au bout d'un certain temps on se trouve à court. Après un engagement les soldats ne sont généralement pas disposés à se fatiguer beaucoup à chercher du bois ; et cependant il y a des centaines, parfois des milliers de blessés et de malades à nourrir. La Commission sanitaire dans ces occasions se servit d'immenses chaudières montées sur des roues, et contenant une soupe bien faite et nourrissante, que ses agents distribuèrent aux soldats, qui ne furent pas longs à imiter cet exemple.

HÔPITAUX VOLANTS.

Une autre proposition de la Commission que le corps médical suivit immédiatement, fut celle d'un hôpital modèle ambulant. Une construction destinée à recevoir les malades rapidement établie, grande et d'un transport facile, est de la plus grande importance pour toute armée, et il est douteux que ces trois conditions puissent être mieux remplies que par le système en question. Il consiste en troncs d'arbres, plantés à la distance voulue, la toiture est formée de prélarts, et les côtés clos par de la toile à voile pouvant être relevée ou

abaissée à volonté. Le premier hôpital de ce genre qui fut construit contenait 1,500 lits.

IV

INSPECTION DES TROUPES, DES HÔPITAUX ET DES CAMPS.

La Commission attacha dès l'abord une haute importance à l'inspection des troupes, des hôpitaux et des camps. Toutes les facilités qu'elle pouvait désirer lui furent accordées à cet effet aussitôt que le Dr Hammond fut devenu chirurgien-major. Des inspecteurs spéciaux furent chargés de ce soin, et nous pouvons donner une idée de la nature et de la valeur de leur œuvre en nommant les sujets dont traite un des rapports ainsi obtenus : 1. Description et caractère général des troupes inspectées ; 2. Nature des sites des camps ; 3. Dispositions intérieures et conditions générales des camps ; 4. Des tentes; leur nature, ventilation et organisation ; 5. Couchers et literies ; 6. Propreté individuelle ; 7. Propreté des camps ; 8. De l'eau ; sa provenance et sa qualité ; 9. Rations et cuisine ; 10. Caisse des compagnies ; 11. Cantines ; 12. Intempérance ; 13. Absences ; 14. Amusements ; 15. Sociétés de secours mutuels ; 16. Discipline ; 17. Inspection médicale au moment de l'engagement militaire ; 18. Des officiers de santé ; 19. Hôpitaux, ambulances, etc. ; 20. Maladies régnantes 21. Devoirs préventifs des chirurgiens ; 22. Armes et accoutrements.

QUE FERA-T-ON DES INVALIDES ET DES VÉTÉRANS
A LA FIN DE LA GUERRE?

Grave question qui ne pouvait manquer d'attirer l'attention spéciale de la Commission sanitaire. Sans prétendre en aucune manière empiéter sur la partie politique du problème, la Commission devait, pour être fidèle à sa mission, l'étudier de manière à pouvoir en moment opportun en présenter une solution. Il était impossible de le faire en Amérique où jusqu'au commencement de la guerre actuelle il n'y avait pas eu à proprement parler d'armée. D'un autre côté, les soldats volontaires des Etats-Unis ne sauraient être assimilés à une armée régulière, et leur retour à la vie civile était le but vers lequel il fallait tendre. Le Comité permanent de la Commission résolut d'envoyer un agent spécial en Europe pour y étudier les systèmes des retraites et des pensions. Nous donnons ici quelques extraits d'une lettre du Rév. Dr Bellows à ce sujet. « La Commission est « fort occupée de la question de savoir ce que deviennent « les invalides après cette guerre. Nous calculons « que, si elle dure encore un an, il n'y aura pas moins « de cent mille hommes estropiés, épuisés de corps et « d'esprit, à la charge du pays. Ajoutez à cela une autre « centaine de mille que les habitudes militaires auront « gâtées pour la vie civile, et il est facile de prévoir les « dangers qui en résulteront pour l'ordre, l'industrie, « et la sécurité de la société tout entière; aussi bien

« que l'énorme charge qui menace ses ressources déjà
« si taxées. .

« Pour rendre la plus grande partie de nos invalides
« à leurs familles en position d'y vivre et d'y travailler
« selon leurs forces, aidés et vénérés par leurs proches,
« il nous faut une loi sage, généreuse, et bien considérée
« sur les pensions ; et il faut que cette loi ne contienne
« rien d'humiliant ou de tyrannique

« . . . De plus le droit à la pension ne devra pas dé-
« pendre seulement des blessures visibles. La perte de
« la santé, ou des forces, évidemment causée par le ser-
« vice militaire, devra donner droit à une pension . . .

« Nous désirons beaucoup ob-
« tenir un rapport circonstancié sur les organisations
« étrangères au profit des invalides avant la prochaine
« assemblée du Congrès. Et à la réunion du Comité exé-
« cutif de la Commission sanitaire , qui a eu lieu der-
« nièrement chez moi, la résolution suivante a été
« proposée par M. Olmsted et acceptée :

« Il est résolu que M. S.-G. Perkins sera prié d'étudier les
« systèmes de pensions militaires et d'invalides des principales
« nations de l'Europe, visitant les établissements les plus impor-
« tants où l'on reçoit les invalides, et de rapporter ses observa-
« tions à la Commission, ainsi que son opinion sur un système
« de pension et de retraite pour les soldats estropiés dans cette
« guerre. »

« J'espère que vous consentirez à nous charger de
« cette mission, »

M. Perkins accepta, et le résultat de ses recherches fut publié sous le titre de *Rapport sur le système de pensions et d'hôpitaux d'invalides de France, de Prusse, d'Autriche, de Russie et d'Italie, avec quelques propositions sur la meilleure manière de disposer de nos invalides.* Il nous suffira ici de dire que la Commission sanitaire, d'accord avec l'opinion générale des Américains, repousse l'idée de la création d'hospices imités des hôtels d'invalides établis en Europe.

DEUXIÈME PARTIE

RÉSULTATS OBTENUS

PRÉVENTION.

Les statistiques de mortalité de l'armée anglaise en Crimée montrent que ses pertes s'élevaient à 25 0/0, et pendant la guerre d'Espagne, contre Napoléon I^{er}, à 16 1/2 0/0. Les tables de mortalité de l'armée américaine, dressées avec le plus grand soin, donnent moins de 6 0/0. Prenant la moyenne des chiffres donnés pour l'armée anglaise, soit 20 0/0, il y aurait donc un avantage, en faveur de l'armée américaine, la comptant à 1,000,000 d'hommes (ce qui est cependant un chiffre trop faible), de 140,000 hommes ! Mettant de côté toute question d'humanité, il y a là un gain pécunier et national qu'il est difficile d'apprécier à sa juste valeur. Si ces 140,000 hommes de plus eussent péri, cette perte eût été peut-être désastreuse pour le Nord. En voyant plus loin un aperçu des secours donnés par la Commission, on comprendra facilement quelle part elle a eue à ce résultat. Mais ce qu'il importe surtout de ne pas perdre de vue, c'est qu'elle a principalement sauvé les soldats en prévenant les maladies, soit en subvenant à leurs besoins, soit en répandant partout les connaissances

hygiéniques indispensables à la santé des armées, et que ne possédaient pas toujours les chirurgiens, pour la plupart nouveaux dans leurs fonctions.

Si, malgré des circonstances aussi peu avantageuses que celles décrites dans notre première partie, la mortalité dans l'armée américaine est restée si étonnamment inférieure à la mortalité ordinaire des troupes en campagne, cette différence doit avoir une cause. Or, jusqu'à ce qu'on nous en montre une meilleure, nous ne pouvons nous refuser à considérer comme telle la Commission sanitaire, seul point de différence entre les autres armées et celle de l'Union.

GUÉRISONS.

Le corps médical de la Commission sanitaire compte maintenant plus de deux cents hommes, capables, actifs et expérimentés, qui, avec leurs aides, forment une force d'une efficacité difficile à égaler. Ils sont présents sur tous les champs de bataille, partout où il y a un soldat blessé à secourir. Ils ont en abondance tout ce qui peut être nécessaire aux malades. Nécessairement leurs principaux devoirs sont sur le champ de bataille, et telle est la perfection à laquelle leur organisation a atteint, qu'à-près la lutte sanglante de Chattanooga tous les blessés étaient à l'hôpital et pansés, à minuit, le jour même où elle eut lieu. Ce fait est sans précédent dans les annales militaires.

Quand le général Hooker changea sa base d'opérations, après la bataille de Chancellorsville, avis fut donné

à la Commission sanitaire que 8,000 malades et blessés des ambulances du Potomac, Aquia Creek et Falmouth, allaient être immédiatement dirigés sur Washington. La Commission dans cette ville devait donc fournir aux besoins de tous, et malgré le peu de temps qu'elle avait devant elle, les convois commençant à arriver la même nuit, tout ce qui était nécessaire fut fait. Ces 8,000 hommes, dont un grand nombre étaient dangereusement blessés et fort malades, arrivèrent fatigués, souffrant de la faim et de la soif. A cette occasion on distribua 1,000 pains, 30 barils de biscuit et 4,000 litres de café chaud. Au bout de trois nuits et deux jours ils étaient tous définitivement installés dans les divers hôpitaux, et par conséquent n'étaient plus à la charge exclusive de la Commission. Notons en passant, à l'honneur de sa race, que le cuisinier nègre de la Commission passa à cette occasion deux jours et deux nuits à l'ouvrage, ne s'arrêtant pas même pour dormir.

Les exemples de ce genre sont innombrables.

Nous donnons ici la liste des objets distribués par la Commission sanitaire pendant et immédiatement après la bataille de Gettysburg, aussi bien aux insurgés blessés qu'aux soldats de l'Union.

OBJETS DISTRIBUÉS PAR LA COMMISSION SANITAIRE A L'OCASION DE LA BATAILLE DE GETTYSBURG.

VÉTEMENTS, ETC.

Caleçons, laine . . .	5,310	Vieux linge et bandes	110 barils.
» coton . . .	1,833	Réservoirs à eau . . .	7
Chemises, laine . . .	7,158	Appareils à rafraîchir l'eau . . .	46
» coton . . .	3,266	Bay-Rhum et eau de Cologne . . .	225 bout.
Oreillers	2,114	Eventails	3,500
Taies d'oreillers . . .	264	Toile cirée	300 mètr.
Couvertures de lits .	1,630	Bassius en fer blanc	7,000
Couvertures de laine	1,007	Chlorure de chaux	11 barils.
Draps	274	Souliers et pantoufles	4,000 paires.
Robes de chambre . . .	508	Béquilles	1,200
Mouchoirs	2,659	Lanternes	180
Bas, laine	3,560 paires.	Chandelles	175 kilog.
» coton	2,258 "	Toile	300 mètr.
Vases de nuit . . .	728	Moustiquaires	648 pièces.
Serviettes et essuie-mains	10,000	Papier	237 mains.
Eponges	2,300	Pantalons, cha- peaux, etc.	189 pièces.
Peignes	1,500	Emplâtres	16 roul.
Seaux	200		
Savon	125 kilog.		

ALIMENTS, ETC.

Volaille et mouton .	5,500 kilog.	Tablettes de bouillon	1,900 kilog.
Beurre	3,215 "	Lait concentré	6,250 "
Œufs	8,500 douz.	Farine préparée	3,500 "
Légumes	675 boiss.	Fruits secs	1,750 "
Baies	48 "	Gelées	2,000 pots.
Pain	6,450 kilog.	Conserves de poisson	1,800 kilog.
Tamarins	3,000 litres.	Cornichous	1,200 litres.
Citrons	116 caiss.	Tabac	500 kilog.
Oranges	46 "	Pipes	1,000
Café	425 kilog.	Farine de maïs	810 kilog.
Chocolat	415 "	Amidon	383 "
Thé	213 "	Morue	1,924 "
Sucre	3,400 "	Conserves de fruits	582 boites.
Sirops	785 bout.	" d'huîtres	72 "
Eau-de-vie	1,250 "	Pêches à l'eau-de-vie	303 bout.
Whisky	4,168 "	Sauces piquantes	43 "
Vin	1,148 "	Vinaigre	24 "
Bière	2,000 litres.	Gingembre	43 "
Biscuit	134 barils.		
Viande conservée .	250 kilog.		
Glace	10,000 "		

Le tout estimé à près de 375,000 francs.

Plusieurs articles de cette nomenclature amèneront peut-être un sourire sur les lèvres de quelques-uns de nos lecteurs ; mais nous sommes certains, dans ce cas, qu'ils n'ont jamais été soldats ni blessés. Tous ceux qui ont servi apprécieront le bien-être que les objets énumérés ci-dessus durent procurer aux milliers de blessés des deux partis que la Commission eut à soigner. Ils n'eussent pu avoir ce secours d'aucune autre source. Ceci est cependant loin d'être le seul genre de services rendus aux soldats par la Commission. Ses nombreux agents établissaient des cuisines, des chambrées, des abris de toute nature et pansaient les blessés dont les chirurgiens de l'armée étaient surchargés. Ceci était de la plus haute importance, car 14,860 blessés (en y comprenant 1,810 révoltés) encombraient les hôpitaux, en dehors de 5,450 prisonniers qui étaient soignés ailleurs. *La Commission ne faisait aucune distinction dans ses dons entre ses amis et ses ennemis, les regardant tous non comme des soldats, mais comme des hommes.*

Ces secours, du reste, tant médicaux que d'approvisionnement, n'étaient donnés qu'à la requête des autorités compétentes. Souvent les soldats ne reçoivent les dons de la Commission que de la main du chirurgien du régiment et sans en connaître l'origine¹, la mission de ses agents se bornant à avoir toujours sous la main ce dont on peut avoir besoin, et à rendre tous les services que le corps médical de l'armée leur demande.

¹ Il n'y a pas longtemps que M. Knapp, un agent de la Commission, rencontra un homme qui dit que, « pour sa part, il n'avait jamais rien reçu de

LOGES.

Cette partie de l'œuvre de la Commission est des plus intéressantes. A chaque appel du Président, des soldats arrivaient en foule de tous les points du Nord. En conséquence des difficultés nombreuses qui fondirent à la fois sur le Gouvernement au commencement de la guerre, il ne lui fut possible de prévoir ou de satisfaire que les plus pressants besoins. Ceux qu'il était forcément obligé de négliger étaient cependant bien importants aussi; et peut-être, sans la formation immédiate et l'action énergique de la Commission sanitaire, les armées du Nord eussent été détruites et dispersées avant de rencontrer l'ennemi. La Commission, voyant les besoins, résolut d'établir immédiatement des Loges où les volontaires trouvaient en arrivant un abri et la nourriture jusqu'à ce qu'il soit décidé où le Gouvernement les enverrait.

A cet effet, un vaste bâtiment fut loué à Washington, à portée des chemins de fer; un hôpital et d'autres dépendances y furent bientôt ajoutés; un chirurgien capable, avec des gardes-malades volontaires, hommes et femmes, y furent installés, et tout le monde rivalisa de zèle pour mener à bien cette entreprise à la fois philanthropique et patriotique. Bientôt il devint nécessaire d'en

la Commission sanitaire, et n'avait jamais rien vu qui en vint. » M. Knapp, après l'avoir examiné un instant, le prit à part et lui demanda la permission d'examiner ses vêtements. Tous, jusqu'à ses chaussettes, portaient la marque de la Commission sanitaire! Cet homme cependant était de bonne foi; mais il ne savait pas lire, et avait reçu ses vêtements sans savoir qu'ils venaient de la Commission et non du gouvernement.

établir dans d'autres parties de la ville. Des soldats revenaient de l'armée malades ou blessés. Par suite de leur manque d'expérience militaire, les officiers ne saisaient pas toujours dresser correctement les pièces nécessaires au soldat libéré pour qu'il puisse toucher sa paye. Figurez-vous un homme, malade et blessé peut-être, arrivant dans une ville étrangère sans un sou dans sa poche, sans amis, ses papiers non régularisés, et quelquefois même noté comme « déserteur » au quartier général ! Que pouvait faire un homme en de telles circonstances ? Même s'il réussissait à arriver jusqu'au quartier-maître général sans se laisser dépoiller de ses certificats, qui seuls pouvaient lui procurer l'argent qu'il avait si laborieusement gagné, le quartier-maître ne pouvait le payer d'après des pièces irrégulières.

La Commission sanitaire résolut la question en établissant la « Loge n° 4. »

Cette Loge occupe environ un demi-arpent de terrain, en y comprenant le bureau du quartier-maître, et contient :

1^o Les bureaux où l'on reçoit les pièces qui ne sont pas en règle.

2^o Le bureau du chirurgien.

3^o » de l'agent des pensions.

4^o » » des billets de chemins de fer.

5^o Une salle de bagages pour les soldats.

6^o Un dortoir de 96 lits, une salle à manger pour 100 personnes, les cuisines, une vaste pièce où les soldats se réunissent quand il fait mauvais temps, et la chambre du surintendant.

7° Deux ou trois petites boutiques où les soldats peuvent acheter les choses dont ils ont le plus souvent besoin, à prix fixe, et d'après un tarif établi.

8° Le bureau du quartier-maître, qui nécessairement est entièrement indépendant de la Commission sanitaire.

Cette liste s'explique d'elle-même. Les agents de la Commission conduisent le soldat aux différents bureaux où il a affaire, et ne l'abandonnent que quand il monte en chemin de fer, certain d'être de nouveau soigné par d'autres agents de la Commission dans toutes les villes qu'il traversera jusqu'à ce qu'enfin il ait rejoint sa famille.

Voici un aperçu du travail de la Loge n° 4 durant l'année 1863 :

Pièces reçues pour les faire rectifier.	2,130
Soldats logés temporairement.	12,763
Repas distribués.	67,314
Argent reçu pour le compte des soldats. fr. 902,783	

De cette somme 745,244 francs furent touchés par les soldats eux-mêmes, et 157,539 francs leur furent envoyés après leur rentrée dans leurs foyers, en sommes variant de 50 fr. à 1,500 fr. Bien que la somme ainsi recouvrée sous les auspices de la Commission soit assez forte, elle est cependant petite auprès de la somme totale payée aux soldats libérés, ce qui tient à ce que la Commission ne reçoit que les pièces entachées d'erreurs. Quand elles sont régulières, le soldat peut recueillir lui-même en cinq minutes ce qui lui est dû.

Il y a 17 de ces Loges dans le pays et elles ont ensemble abrité, pendant l'année 1863, 207,070 personnes, et distribué 604,156 repas.

DICTIONNAIRE DES HÔPITAUX.

Le travail connu sous ce nom est un registre au moyen duquel la Commission sanitaire peut toujours renseigner la famille des soldats sur le compte de ceux qui sont dans les hôpitaux, malades ou blessés. Ses agents lui envoient constamment les noms des malades qui arrivent dans les divers établissements, avec l'indication des divisions, régiments et compagnies dont ils font partie. Des milliers de familles peuvent de cette manière apprendre le sort de ceux qui leur sont chers, tandis qu'autrement elles seraient privées, pendant des mois entiers, de leurs nouvelles. Ce dictionnaire embrasse toutes les parties du pays. En voici le résultat jusqu'au 1^{er} octobre 1863.

Noms inscrits au bureau de Washington. . .	169,007
» » New-York. . .	27,320
» » Philadelphie. .	24,513
» » Louisville. . .	186,433
<hr/>	
Total.	407,273

REVENUS DE LA COMMISSION SANITAIRE.

La Commission sanitaire n'a d'autre source de revenus que les dons volontaires du peuple, et depuis son orga-

nisation, ses dépôts ont toujours abondé en provisions venant de toutes les parties du pays. L'argent aussi afflua dans ses coffres : les habitants de la Californie, à eux seuls, envoyèrent en une fois au trésorier de la Commission, la somme de 2,500,000 francs, et à l'occasion des dernières élections de cet Etat (en 1863), une somme presque égale fut souscrite dans le même but. Les autres Etats donnèrent aussi des sommes importantes.

Des « ventes » ont eu lieu dernièrement dans plusieurs villes du Nord, au profit de la Commission sanitaire et de ses diverses Sociétés auxiliaires. Ainsi à Chicago, Cincinnati, Brooklyn, Albany, Buffalo, Rochester, Cleveland, Boston, Elmira, Washington, etc. A Chicago (où eut lieu le premier essai de ce genre), la vente rapporta à la Commission 250,000 fr.; net; celle de Cincinnati produisit 1,343,350 fr.; celle de Brooklyn, au mois de mars 1864, plus de 2,000,000 de fr.; celle de New-York, du mois d'avril 1864, 5,000,500 francs net.

Les Américains à l'étranger n'ont pas voulu être exclus de la participation à l'œuvre de la Commission sanitaire. A Paris ils se sont formés en Société auxiliaire sous le titre de *European Branch of the United States Sanitary Commission*, et après avoir prêché d'exemple en réunissant entre eux une somme de 65,000 fr., ils se sont adressés à leurs compatriotes dans les diverses villes d'Europe, les invitant à se joindre à eux¹. Des maisons françaises et étrangères, qui font des affaires avec les Etats-Unis, ainsi que des particuliers de diverses na-

¹ A cet effet, ils ont établi une agence dont les bureaux sont à Paris, rue Martel, n° 21.

tions, apprenant l'organisation de cette Société auxiliaire, ont tenu à honneur de prendre part à la grande œuvre du peuple américain. Leurs offrandes ont été reçues avec reconnaissance par la Commission sanitaire, non à cause de leur valeur intrinsèque, mais comme témoignage d'approbation pour sa noble entreprise, et comme gage de cette fraternité des peuples qui grandit chaque jour avec la civilisation¹.

Les dons tant en argent qu'en nature recueillis jusqu'ici par la Branche européenne de la Commission sanitaire, s'élèvent aux chiffres suivants : En France, 130,000 fr.; à Rome 50,000 fr.; à Dusseldorf, 25,000 fr.; en Suisse, 15,000 fr.; à Berlin, 12,000 fr.; à Francfort-sur-le-Mein, 7,000 fr., total 239,000 fr. Ce chiffre cependant est trop faible, car beaucoup de contributions, et particulièrement des dons pour les ventes, ont été envoyés directement aux Etats-Unis, sans l'entremise de la Commission de Paris. Ainsi, une seule maison de cette ville a envoyé à la vente de Boston des marchandises pour une valeur de 75,000 fr., et à d'autres pour diverses sommes.

En Angleterre, une Société auxiliaire semblable à celle de Paris, mais n'en dépendant pas, a été aussi établie il y a quelques mois, et a recueilli environ 160,000 fr. en argent et en nature.

La valeur totale des dons de toutes provenances

¹ Fraternité que les Américains de leur côté cultivent avec zèle, puisqu'au milieu de leur crise actuelle ils ont souscrit pour 40,000 francs au profit des ouvriers cotonniers de France; 1,325,000 francs pour ceux du Lancashire, et 550,000 francs pour l'Irlande, désolée par la famine.

reçues par la Commission sanitaire, était évaluée à environ 50,450,000 francs, jusqu'au commencement de mai 1864.

Mais quelque importantes que soient ces recettes, elles sont encore insuffisantes pour permettre à la Commission sanitaire de donner à son œuvre tout le développement désirable, et ses efforts pour augmenter ses ressources sont incessants.

DÉPENSES DE LA COMMISSION SANITAIRE.

La manière dont s'écoulent les contributions en nature propres à l'usage des soldats ne demande aucune explication ; les autres dons en nature forment le matériel des ventes. Il ne nous reste donc à parler que de l'emploi de l'argent reçu par la Commission.

Ses dépenses consistent en achats de provisions, de médicaments, etc., et du matériel nécessaire à ses transports. Il lui faut des voitures, des wagons, des vaisseaux, pour transporter ses dons sur le champ de bataille, et surtout des hôpitaux ; de plus, des bâtiments pour les loges, etc. La Commission paye aussi ses employés, à l'exception des membres du Comité. Elle y a été amenée par des raisons d'intérêt aussi bien que de justice. Les appointements qu'elle donne sont cependant minimes, surtout quand l'on considère le travail qu'elle demande et la position qu'occupaient dans la société les hommes qu'elle emploie ; et, grâce à cette rétribution, elle conserve sur eux une autorité qu'elle ne saurait avoir sur un corps d'employés volontaires.

Du reste, issue du peuple, tenant du peuple les fonds dont elle dispose, elle lui doit un compte exact et minutieux de sa gestion. Elle l'a bien compris et ses comptes sont constamment soumis au public; de plus, elle donne la plus grande publicité possible à ses opérations par le moyen de ses organes spéciaux : « *The sanitary Bulletin*, » et « *The sanitary Reporter* » et par des rapports publiés séparément.

De tous ces documents résulte le fait extraordinaire que *tous les frais de son administration ne s'élèvent pas à 3 0/0 de son revenu annuel*; c'est-à-dire que le soldat est certain de profiter de plus des 97/100 de ce que ses concitoyens lui sacrifient!

POPULARITÉ DE LA COMMISSION.

Que la Commission sanitaire, grâce au bien qu'elle fait aux soldats, soit populaire dans l'armée, cela n'a rien qui puisse nous surprendre. Mais elle l'est également dans le Gouvernement et parmi les autorités militaires et médicales, ce qui fait son plus bel éloge. En effet, nous avons vu que, à l'origine, les autorités craignaient l'influence sur la discipline, si nécessaire aux armées en campagne, de l'immixtion turbulente et irréfléchie des particuliers. Il n'en a rien été cependant. La Commission, dès l'abord, avait déclaré sa conviction que « la première loi sanitaire des camps et des armées est la *discipline militaire*; et qu'à moins que celle-ci ne soit rigoureusement appliquée, il est inutile d'essayer et impossible d'atteindre, par des moyens moins effi-

caces, le but qu'elle se propose, à savoir la santé et le bien-être des soldats. » Dans un excellent article de la *Revue des Deux-Mondes*, en date du 1^{er} mai 1864, il s'est glissé à ce sujet une regrettable erreur. Après avoir décrit éloquemment les bienfaits de la Commission, M. E. Reclus ajoute : « Il est hors de doute que les chefs des « diverses armées d'Europe ne toléreraient à aucun prix « la formation d'une société libre d'hospitaliers se don- « nant pour mission, non-seulement de soigner les sol- « dats malades et blessés, mais aussi d'opérer le recense- « ment des militaires, de poursuivre les déserteurs, de « signer les feuilles de route, de rechercher la cause des « punitions infligées, de défendre les intérêts des volon- « taires contre certains spéculateurs et au besoin contre « le gouvernement. » De telles prétentions de la part d'une association quelconque ne seraient pas tolérées aux Etats-Unis, car ce ne serait plus de la liberté, mais bien du désordre et de l'anarchie, choses peu sympathiques aux Américains. La Commission sanitaire s'est offerte pour soigner les soldats malades et blessés quand le Gouvernement n'y pouvait suffire et celui-ci a accepté ces offres. Elle n'opère point de recensements, mais se contente de transmettre à son Comité central les renseignements sur l'effectif, les malades, etc., des différents régiments, qui lui sont fournis par les officiers ou les chirurgiens de ces régiments, dans le but de faciliter l'œuvre de la Commission, et cela en vertu des ordres du Ministre de la Guerre et des officiers supérieurs. Elle ne poursuit point les déserteurs, n'en ayant point le droit; si cependant il se présente à ses loges, pour y

demande des secours, des individus suspects, elle en informe l'autorité, agissant en cela comme un simple particulier qui ne veut pas se laisser voler. Quant aux autres accusations (si toutefois ce mot n'est pas trop sévère, puisque l'intention évidente de l'article de M. E. Reclus n'est pas d'accuser, mais au contraire de louer la Commission sanitaire), elles reposent toutes sur un seul fait. La Commission se charge de faire régulariser les certificats des soldats libérés qui ne sont pas en règle. C'est-à-dire que, possédant une connaissance approfondie des formalités et de la routine administratives, elle se charge, au nom du vétéran ou de l'invalide, des démarches que celui-ci ne peut pas faire lui-même. Prenons un exemple pour mieux expliquer notre pensée : un soldat blessé ou malade, après avoir traîné d'hôpital en hôpital, à travers une région occupée tantôt par les troupes de l'Union, tantôt par celles des révoltés, arrive mutilé et malade à Washington, définitivement congédié. Il va au quartier-maître général pour toucher l'arriéré de sa solde, qui doit lui fournir les moyens d'arriver dans ses foyers ; mais le quartier-maître, après avoir examiné ses papiers, déclare qu'ils ne sont pas en règle et que, de plus, il est marqué comme déserteur ! La vérité est cependant peut-être que, d'un côté, l'officier qui a dressé sa feuille a simplement omis quelque formalité ou commis une erreur par manque d'habitude (cet officier était peut-être fermier, négociant, avocat, quelques mois auparavant), et de l'autre, qu'après être entré dans un premier hôpital, cet homme, apprenant que son régiment va se remettre en marche, a sollicité et obtenu du chirurgien la permis-

sion de quitter l'hôpital, quoique encore bien faible, pour rejoindre son drapeau. En route ses forces l'ont trahi ; il n'a pu continuer. On l'a recueilli dans l'hôpital le plus voisin ; quand il a été rétabli son régiment était au loin, et ses officiers, ayant appris qu'il avait quitté le premier hôpital et n'en recevant pas de nouvelles au bout de quelque temps, l'ont porté comme déserteur. Guéri maintenant, il a été incorporé dans un autre régiment, où il est de nouveau blessé, et nous venons de le retrouver libéré par les officiers de son dernier régiment, à Washington. Sans argent, sans forces, ne sachant à qui s'adresser, il lui faudrait donc renoncer à l'espoir non-seulement de recevoir ce qui lui est dû, mais aussi à celui de revoir sa famille et de réhabiliter son nom ? C'est alors que la Commission sanitaire intervient, mais seulement comme société de bienfaisance et dans une capacité privée. Elle obtient du soldat les détails de son histoire, les preuves qu'il peut fournir à l'appui, et elle lui facilite le retour dans sa famille. Puis elle fait les démarches nécessaires pour s'assurer de la véracité du récit de son protégé, et, quand elle a obtenu les certificats nécessaires, elle les soumet aux autorités qui voient alors ce qu'il y a lieu de faire. Ceci nous semble bien éloigné de la prétention de « signer les feuilles de route, de rechercher la cause des punitions infligées, de défendre les intérêts des volontaires au besoin contre le Gouvernement. » Si nous insistons sur ce point, c'est parce qu'il est de la plus haute importance de dégager de tout malentendu ce fait, que *l'œuvre de la Commission sanitaire est compatible avec les règles les plus strictes de la discipline*

militaire. C'est à ce fait qu'elle doit sa popularité parmi les officiers généraux, qui lui ont exprimé toute leur bienveillance, et entre lesquels il nous suffira de citer le Président Lincoln (revenu de sa première impression en voyant les résultats obtenus par la Commission), et les généraux Winfield Scott, Frémont, Grant, Burnside, Gilmore, Meade, Rosecrans, Garfield, Mac Cook, Palmer, etc., etc. Dans le corps médical de l'armée, il n'est pas un chirurgien qu'elle ne compte au nombre de ses amis.

C O N C L U S I O N

Nous avons essayé, dans les pages qui précèdent, de donner une idée générale des principes selon lesquels la Commission sanitaire des Etats-Unis est établie, ainsi que des résultats qu'elle a déjà obtenus. La tâche était difficile. Nous espérons avoir réussi à dépeindre les traits les plus marquants, sans nous flatter toutefois d'en avoir fait ressortir toute la valeur.

Notre but dans ce travail était, du reste, des plus simples : prouver, par l'exemple d'une nation entière, que les armées ne peuvent que gagner à la propagation des entreprises civiles qui ont pour objet de leur aider dans les circonstances difficiles ; tandis que les gouvernements, de leur côté, loin d'y rencontrer une source d'embarras et de désordres, y trouveront un auxiliaire à la fois soumis et zélé ; que ces associations se nomment « Hospitaliers volontaires, » « Commission sanitaire, » ou de quelque autre nom que ce soit¹.

¹ Si ces organisations étaient, par leur nature même, ainsi qu'on l'a quelquefois affirmé, propres à relâcher la discipline et à causer des désordres, la Commission sanitaire eût certes produit ces résultats fâcheux aux Etats-Unis, dans ces armées immenses, composées d'hommes qui n'avaient jamais servi, habitués à se considérer tous égaux dans la vie civile, et conduites

Tel a été, nous le répétons, notre seul but. En effet, nous ne saurions songer un seul instant à recommander à aucune autre nation de calquer l'institution américaine de la Commission sanitaire. Cette organisation, qui répond si merveilleusement aux besoins de ce pays, serait mauvaise, quant aux détails du moins, partout où les mêmes circonstances ne se présenteraient pas. En France, par exemple, où le corps des officiers de santé est si compétent, il serait plus qu'inutile de vouloir imiter le système des publications médicales du Comité de Washington. L'armée française, du reste, composée d'hommes choisis parmi la jeunesse du pays, servant pendant un temps déterminé et assez long, commandée par des chefs expérimentés, ne se trouve sous aucun rapport dans les mêmes conditions que l'armée américaine. Cette dernière était formée de volontaires arrivant en foule de tous les points d'un pays immense, guidés par des chefs qu'ils s'étaient choisis, et qui, comme les soldats, venaient de sortir de leurs bureaux, de leurs ateliers, de leurs fermes, quittant femmes, enfants, famille, pour marcher immédiatement à l'en nemi, — parfois sans avoir seulement eu le temps d'apprendre les manœuvres.

Une seule fois peut-être dans l'histoire, l'armée fran-

par des officiers qui n'avaient jamais commandé et qui étaient en quelque sorte (à l'exception des officiers supérieurs) nommés par leurs soldats. Ce sont cependant ces officiers militaires et de santé, d'autant plus jaloux de leur autorité et ombrageux de tout ce qui pouvait y porter atteinte qu'elle était plus récente, qui témoignent que la Commission sanitaire a eu des résultats tout opposés sous ce rapport à ceux que quelques personnes en attendaient.

çaise se trouva dans des conditions analogues à celles de l'armée américaine. C'était sous la République, quand la jeunesse tout entière se précipita à la défense des frontières menacées par l'étranger ; et à cette époque, nous la voyons décimée par les maladies, suite inévitable de l'insuffisance des soins hygiéniques. La Convention y remédia autant que possible par le décret du mois d'août 1793, qui mit en réquisition tous les médecins, chirurgiens et pharmaciens, de dix-huit à quarante ans, et en fit les officiers de santé de ses armées. Une organisation semblable à celle des Etats-Unis eût alors trouvé une application utile et logique. Mais de semblables circonstances sont heureusement rares.

Les armées de l'Europe profitent maintenant de tous les progrès des sciences médicales, et le temps où La Noue disait : « Le lit d'honneur des blessés est un bon fossé où une arquebusade les aura jetés, » est loin de nous. Depuis Ambroise Paré, le savant chirurgien de M. de Vendôme, que son bon cœur poussait si souvent à négliger son noble patron pour s'occuper des simples soldats, jusqu'au baron Larrey, « l'homme le plus vertueux » que Napoléon I^r ait connu, la position du soldat alla toujours en s'améliorant sous ce rapport. Le service de santé ne prit cependant réellement naissance qu'à la fondation de l'Académie royale de chirurgie, en 1731 ; et Larrey couronna l'édifice en créant la division d'ambulance volante que Bernadotte nommait « une des plus heureuses conceptions de notre siècle. »

Mais s'il n'y a pas lieu d'imiter servilement l'exemple de la Commission sanitaire des Etats-Unis, les principes

dont découlent son œuvre peuvent être partout appliqués avec avantage ; car, quelque capables et quelque zélés que puissent être les officiers de santé attachés aux armées, ils ne sauraient toujours suffire aux besoins, au moins en campagne. Après une bataille il leur faut accompagner l'armée si elle se porte en avant, et alors que deviennent les malades et les blessés abandonnés en pays ennemi ? Aucun gouvernement ne saurait cependant remédier à cette nécessité de la guerre. D'un autre côté, il ne leur suffit pas toujours d'être instruits et zélés ; pour faire tout le bien possible, il faut encore qu'ils en aient les moyens. Dans l'île de Lobau, Larrey manqua de viande pour faire le bouillon dont ses malades avaient fort besoin ; pour s'en procurer, il fit abattre ses propres chevaux ; mais il se trouva alors qu'il n'y avait point d'ustensiles de cuisine ; à défaut de mieux il fit cuire la soupe dans des cuirasses, et son esprit inventif lui suggéra l'idée de l'assaisonner avec de la poudre à canon à défaut du sel qui lui manquait. La première tasse du produit fut offerte au maréchal Masséna, et le reste distribué entre les malades auxquels ce bouillon étrange fut cependant beaucoup de bien. Si dans des armées aussi savamment organisées que celles de Napoléon I^e un pareil dénuement peut se faire sentir, quel est le gouvernement qui oserait se flatter d'en préserver toujours les siennes ? Or, nous avons vu comment dans ces circonstances la Commission sanitaire, organisée expressément pour subvenir à l'imprévu, vient à l'aide du commissariat et du service de santé.

« La Commission sanitaire, dit l'auteur de l'ouvrage

dont nous avons déjà cité quelques passages dans les pages précédentes, est pour les soldats l'expression de l'amour de leurs concitoyens. » Nous trouvons dans ces paroles à la fois la clef de son succès, et un argument en faveur du principe sur lequel elle repose. Le soldat est l'enfant du peuple, et partout le peuple est prêt à lui venir en aide; le soldat, de son côté, ne peut qu'être plus zélé à combattre pour la patrie quand il reçoit constamment des preuves de l'affection et de la sympathie de ses concitoyens.

Ainsi, l'armée, mieux soignée, mieux soutenue, devient plus apte à remplir ses glorieux mais pénibles devoirs; le peuple, mieux servi par son armée, devient réellement participant à sa gloire, puisqu'il partage les sacrifices qu'elle fait pour la patrie; et le gouvernement est soulagé dans une de ses tâches les plus difficiles et les plus impérieuses, celle de veiller sur la santé et le bien-être des soldats que la nation lui a confiés.

Honneur donc aux femmes qui ont inauguré ce noble mouvement, aux philanthropes éclairés qui l'ont dirigé, et au grand peuple qui a donné au monde la preuve pratique de la possibilité de cette œuvre!

Pour nous, cet exemple nous impose un devoir, celui de le suivre.

Luman C. Reddison
Clarke Institution for the Deaf and Dumb
THE
Mass July 1871

EDUCATION OF DEAF MUTES:

SHALL IT BE BY SIGNS OR
ARTICULATION?

BY

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THE attention of the writer was first called to the education of the deaf by the loss of hearing of his daughter, four years ago, and his efforts to preserve her articulation, which have been to a great degree successful; subsequently, by the discussion of the subject before a Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature, on the recommendation of Governor Bullock that the State should undertake the education of her own deaf mutes. This discussion has led to an inquiry into the management and method of teaching and the results accomplished at the American Asylum for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.

G. G. H.

EDUCATION OF DEAF MUTES.

HOW SIGNS WERE INTRODUCED INTO THIS COUNTRY.

THE education of deaf mutes in schools or asylums was commenced in Europe about the middle of the last century ; but it was not until fifty years later that the attention of benevolent men in this country was directed to the subject. Dr. Coggs-well, a prominent citizen of Hartford, Conn., had a deaf-mute daughter Alice, whose situation excited the sympathy of many friends, and led to inquiries as to the number of deaf mutes in the country. To the surprise of all, there were found to be about four hundred in New England, and about two thousand in the whole United States. It was at once determined to found an institution for the instruction of this hitherto neglected class, and the Rev. Mr. Gallaudet was sent abroad to ascertain what had been done, and what were the best modes of instruction.

Mr. Gallaudet was a friend and neighbor of Dr. Coggs-well, and much interested in Alice. He was graduated at Yale College in 1805, and was subsequently tutor ; he studied law in Hartford, served as a clerk in a store in New York, and finally prepared for the ministry at Andover, and was at this time just ready to enter upon his profession. In the words of his friend and eulogist, Dr. Peet, of the New York Asylum, “ he was a singularly good and useful, rather than great man, somewhat deficient in boldness and originality,” — to which all who have seen his portrait on the walls of the American Asylum will assent.

Mr. Gallaudet sailed for England in May, 1815, and the day

after his arrival in London applied for admission to the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, of which Dr. Watson was the Principal, and which was then, as now, the largest in the world. After some delay, his application was granted by the Directors, on condition that he would engage as an assistant for three years, on the usual terms. This condition he refused to comply with, and went to Edinburgh, where he made a similar application to Mr. Kinniburgh, the Principal of the Asylum in that city. Mr. Kinniburgh was a pupil of Thomas Braidwood of Edinburgh, and had given bonds to him that he would not communicate his art to any teacher for seven years, four of which only had expired. He was, however, willing to instruct Mr. Gallaudet, if permission could be obtained from the widow of Mr. Braidwood. Application was made to her, but she refused to waive the penalty of the bond, and Mr. Kinniburgh was reluctantly obliged to decline Mr. Gallaudet's request. Mr. Braidwood was the uncle of Dr. Watson, and founder of the English schools. His mode of teaching was by "the art of articulation," and the schools then in operation in Great Britain were taught either by his family and relatives or by teachers instructed by them. Children of the poor were supported by charity, while for the education of the wealthy large sums were paid, and to secure these wealthy pupils the art was kept a secret.

Mr. Gallaudet was thus thwarted in his plans, and the system of articulation lost to this country for a generation. While waiting in London for an answer from Dr. Watson, Mr. Gallaudet called on the Abbé Sicard of Paris, who was at that time lecturing upon his system of teaching deaf mutes by signs. Mr. Gallaudet informed the Abbé of his mission, was cordially received, and promised every facility in learning the French system, if he would visit Paris, and place himself under the instruction of the Abbé.

Mr. Gallaudet spent a few months in Edinburgh, studying French, and reading Sicard's treatise on the instruction of deaf mutes, and in the spring of 1816 went to Paris, where he was at once admitted into the school, without any con-

ditions. Here he remained about two months, when M. Clerc, one of the Abbé Sicard's assistants, offered to accompany him to America. His proposition was gladly accepted, and in the month of August, 1816, they arrived at Hartford, bringing with them the French system of signs, with its peculiar idioms of construction, instead of the English method of articulation. M. Clerc continued an assistant at the Asylum for many years, and is still connected with the school where for more than half a century he has faithfully labored.

THE AMERICAN ASYLM.

During the absence of Mr. Gallaudet, an act of incorporation was granted to the Connecticut Asylum, and subscriptions were asked to this new charity, "its views having nothing of a local kind, its constitution inviting to the direction of its concerns individuals of any of the States." \$26,000 were raised, only one fourth of which was contributed by citizens of the State of Connecticut. In the year 1819 a grant of land was made to the Asylum by Congress; and the same year the name of the institution was changed to the American Asylum. In the act changing the name, it was recited, "that the institution was originally founded for the relief of the deaf and dumb, wherever situated." \$287,000 was realized from the sale of these lands, and constitutes the greater portion of their present capital, which is \$290,000, of which \$82,000 is invested in real estate and buildings, the remainder in dividend-paying stocks.

The Directors "were bound by the terms of the grant from the general government to appropriate its annual income to the benefit of the deaf and dumb of the United States";¹ and, in order to carry out its provisions, agreed to expend the funds equally among pupils from all States that should send them, and "to extend similar advantages and equal privileges to all its pupils, in whatever State or country they may have been born."²

¹ Twentieth Report of the American Asylum, for 1836, p. 22.

² Thirty-Eighth Report, for 1854, p. 21.

In pursuance of the terms of the original subscription, and of the obligation incurred by accepting the grant from Congress, the Asylum has received pupils from most of the United States, and has spent the income of the fund towards defraying the current expenses ; the deficiency being divided equally among all the pupils, and paid by their friends or the State by which they were sent. Massachusetts was the first to avail herself of these rights. In the year 1819 she sent twenty pupils, and from that time has made annual appropriations for the same object. For the year 1866, \$18,000 were appropriated for the education, clothing, and travelling expenses of pupils sent to the Asylum, the average number being nearly one hundred.

The charge for the first year or two, while the number of pupils was small, was \$200 a year. This was soon reduced to \$150, then to \$115, and in 1826 to \$100, at which sum it remained for nearly forty years, until 1863, when it was increased to \$125, and in 1865 to \$175. The principal of the fund was first encroached upon some years since by the erection of a wing, and subsequently by the increased cost of living.

By the original design, the Board of Directors was to be composed of individuals from different States, who should show their interest by contributing to the funds of the asylum. The by-laws provided that the contribution of five dollars should make a member for one year, fifty dollars a member for life, one hundred dollars a director for life ; and that the life directors, with ten others chosen by the society, should manage its concerns. Originally one fourth of the directors were from Massachusetts ; but for the last twenty years they have all lived in Hartford. If the original proportion of directors from Massachusetts had been continued, more radical changes in its method of instruction would probably have been made.

The State of Massachusetts is represented in all other asylums and institutions which it supports or aids, and has also a visitorial power over all charitable or educational institu-

tions in the State ; but neither Massachusetts nor Connecticut has any representative in the Board of the American Asylum, nor any visitorial power over it.

Pupils were originally admitted to the Asylum at the age of fourteen ; this was changed to twelve, and in 1843 they were allowed to enter when only eight years old. But parents are not advised to send children under ten or twelve years of age.¹ In March, 1867, twelve was the average age of pupils of the Junior Class.

Five years has been the usual limit of the course of instruction, although always deemed too short a term.

In the European institutions children are admitted when they are from four to ten years of age, the average age of admission in all the institutions being seven years.

At Hartford, besides instruction in the ordinary branches of a common-school education, the boys are taught shoemaking, cabinet-making, and tailoring, and the girls sewing.

All other schools for deaf mutes in this country have been conducted on the same system as that pursued at Hartford, and most asylums in other States are taught by teachers who have been trained at Hartford, and who, with great fidelity, have carried on a uniform system of instruction. In 1860 there were in operation twenty-two institutions for the education of deaf mutes in the United States, and two more were about to be started, averaging one for each centre of a population equal to that of Massachusetts.

SIGN LANGUAGE.

There are various systems used in teaching deaf mutes, and the advocates of each claim for their own peculiar advantages. Each aims to teach the English language, and to give to the deaf mute a means of communication with those around him. The system used in our asylums is the French, and is a language of signs or pantomime, and is called by its teachers the natural language of the deaf mute. The manual alphabet, or the spelling of words upon the fingers, is used to some ex-

¹ Fiftieth Report of the American Asylum, for 1866, p. 15.

tent, but pantomime is the chief medium of communication. Another system discards all pantomime, and uses simply the manual alphabet, with or without reading from the lips. While a third, sometimes called the German system, uses only articulation, and reading from the lips, or the spoken word addressed to the eye instead of the ear.

The mental capacities of deaf mutes are naturally equal to those of other children ; but it is the universal testimony of teachers that they have no innate ideas or sense of moral accountability ; and that few enter school with any knowledge, save what they have obtained by observation.

To the Twenty-Second Report of the American Asylum are annexed several questions addressed to a number of pupils whose average age on joining the school was about fourteen. “ Before you were instructed in the Asylum had you any idea of the Creator ? ” The answers, substantially alike, are given by thirteen pupils. “ No, I did not know that a Creator existed. I had no idea of God at all before I entered the Asylum.” “ Had you reasoned or thought about the world, or the beings and things it contains ? ” “ I never attempted to suppose who had made the world, nor how it had ever come into existence.” “ Had you any idea of your own soul ? ” “ I never conceived such a thing as a soul, nor was I ever conscious that my mind had faculties and operations different and distinct from those of my body.” Their answers show how little their friends at home had been able to teach them.

These pupils therefore enter the Asylum with less cultivation of mind than children ordinarily possess on entering infant or primary schools. “ They are not only utterly ignorant of words, but destitute of most of the ideas represented by words.”¹ “ Their mental faculties are but little developed, and they have no medium of communication but a few simple signs,”² and those “ are crude, imperfect, and semi-barbarous.”³ “ Their eyes are indeed open, but they have hardly

¹ Forty-Seventh Report New York Institution, for 1866, p. 48.

² Forty-Sixth Report American Asylum, for 1862, p. 13.

³ Twenty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1845, p. 55.

been employed as avenues to the mind. Thought is as yet unawakened, except upon the most trivial subjects, and even the language of signs is unknown, save in its rudest form.”¹

“The chief object of the instruction in these schools is to teach these pupils the English language,”² to elevate their minds and hearts, and enable them to communicate with the world at large. To accomplish this end “the natural language of signs” is used in our American Asylums. What is this natural sign language? There is an innate propensity in man to attach signs to thoughts, so as to communicate them to others, that is, to make use of language. Among men thoughts are ordinarily expressed by audible signs or spoken words; when the senses of speech and hearing are wanting, the mental and moral powers are limited to the perceptive faculties and the affections; wants and feelings are expressed by visible language or signs, and these signs do not relate to immaterial objects, but are intelligible to animals, idiots, infants, and uninstructed deaf mutes. Upon these few natural signs the institutions build up a language of conventional signs, and “strive to elevate to as high a degree of excellence as possible this language, so as to make it a complete medium of communication between the instructor and the pupil on all subjects.”³ And as it “is almost entirely destitute of pronouns, conjugations, adverbs, and the moods and tenses of verbs, these must be taught, and the difficulty can be more easily conceived than described.”⁴

The Abbé Sicard attempted to give to this language a development equal to that of speech, having a distinct sign for every spoken word, with necessary signs to denote grammatical characters. This plan would seem to have some advantages over the signs now in use; but his system has been gradually changed, and the “sign language perfected by forty years of familiar use has been adapted to the expression of abstract thoughts and nice shades of ideas, as well as the

¹ Forty-Fifth Report New York Institution, for 1864, p. 61.

² Thirty-Sixth Report American Asylum, for 1852, p. 1.

³ Twentieth Report American Asylum, for 1836, p. 18.

⁴ Sixth Report American Asylum, for 1822, p. 5.

simpler and more patent conceptions.”¹ Attempts have been made to describe these natural signs in books; the best work of this kind was published by Sicard in 1808, but it was of no practical use, “for it is a herculean and often vain labor even to describe the principal of the unintelligible signs of this pantomimic dialect.”²

“Any intelligent person would find himself beset with not a few difficulties were he to attempt to learn from written descriptions only all the motions of a fencing-master or a teacher of gymnastics. But all these are but a drop in the ocean when compared with the countless number and ceaseless variations of the movements of the body, hands, head, eyes, countenance, &c., &c., which are required in the peculiar language of the deaf and dumb. But the skilful use of signs is far from all that is required. A teacher must not only know the language of signs, but the various exercises, the contrivances which are resorted to, and the ingenious modes of illustration which have been devised to aid the pupils in the more difficult part of their progress.”³ “It may seem almost incredible that there are many professional teachers, who have spent the best part of their lives among the deaf and dumb, who are incompetent to carry on a discursive conversation in sign language.”⁴ We can easily understand why the instructors, most of whom are graduates of colleges, should need “five or six years of application to acquire and practise this art.”⁵

The idiom of the sign language is different from our own, or even the French, which it more nearly resembles; it is inverted, the subject is placed before the quality, the object before the action, and generally the thing modified before the modifier. This is the language used as a means of teaching the English language; the process of instruction is the old method employed in “teaching any child a foreign language

¹ Forty-Second Report New York Institution, for 1861, p. 28.

² Twenty-Sixth Report New York Institution, for 1845.

³ Twelfth Report American Asylum, for 1828.

⁴ Hawkins on the Constitution of the Deaf and Dumb, p. 78.

⁵ Forty-Third Report American Asylum, for 1859, p. 21.

by means of his previous acquaintance with his mother tongue.”¹ Whether the end proposed is accomplished, a reference to the reports of the American Asylum and the New York Institution will show. “Pupils think in natural signs, and they converse among themselves by this means almost exclusively when left to their own choice.”² “Both students at college and deaf mutes spend six or seven years in the study of languages which are not their vernacular tongue. The deaf mute acquires a better knowledge of the English than graduates of Latin and Greek.”³ “They are always foreigners among their own kindred and neighbors, nay, more than foreigners, for our speech is for them absolutely unattainable.”⁴ “They can only study written language as we do the foreign or dead languages, receiving instruction through their own vernacular of signs.”⁵ “There are few mutes deaf from birth, however well educated, who do not understand signs more easily and readily than writing, and find it more easy to communicate by signs than writing.”⁶ And in a letter recently received from Dr. Peet, the oldest as well as one of the ablest instructors of deaf mutes in this country, he says “congenital deaf mutes have no distinct mental ideas of spoken words, and do not use them in their private meditations as the direct object and machinery of thought.” Says Professor Day: “I have met with two, and only two, deaf mutes who appeared to think as much as men ordinarily do in words. I have seen others in respect to whom it might possibly be true that they think nearly as much in words as in signs. The great mass, however, of even the most promising pupils think mainly, I am satisfied, in pantomimic signs, with at most only the incorporation of familiar words and phrases. The slowness with which they do it, and the fact that, when repeating a para-

¹ Fourteenth Report American Asylum, for 1830, p. 17.

² Twenty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1845, p. 59.

³ Forty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1865, p. 18.

⁴ Forty-Third Report New York Institution, for 1862, p. 24.

⁵ Forty-Fourth Report New York Institution, for 1863, p. 26.

⁶ Legal Rights, &c. of Deaf Mutes, by Dr. Peet, p. 28.

graph from memory, they make a sign for every word, seems to forbid any other conclusion.”¹

In order to obtain a more distinct idea of the value of these signs, and of the idioms of this language, we requested our friend Amos Smith, one of the most intelligent graduates of the Hartford Asylum, to give a literal translation of the signs used in the Lord’s Prayer, which he did as follows:—

“ Father your and mine Heaven ; name thy hallowed ; kingdom thy come, men and women all ; will thy done, Angels obey people all like ; day this, day every give bread, drink, clothes, things all ; temptation we fall not ; but devil bondage deliver ; for kingdom thy, power thy, glory thy forever. Amen.”

Mr. Smith has also kindly furnished us with Messrs. Smith and Chamberlain’s translation of Deacon Packard’s recitation :—

“ Our Father Heaven, God, name thy hallowed, kingdom light come, angels obey law like done, now day bread, clothes food continually, forgive us trespasses as we forgive. Lead us temptation not, but deliver devil, for thy kingdom, thy power, thy glory, forever. Amen.”

Professor Bartlett of the American Asylum gives us the following translation :—

“ God, Father our [in]² Heaven, name thine hallowed [be], kingdom thine come, will thine [be] obeyed [by] people [on] earth as [by] angels [in] Heaven. Day this, food and things needful give thou. We, commands thy transgress, forgive thou, others us offending we forgive in like manner. Us [into] temptation [to] fall permit thou not, but bondage, Satan deliver thou : for kingdom thine, power thine, glory thine, now and evermore. Amen.”

To show the ability of the deaf mute to translate their vernacular into English, we copy a short passage given in the sign language to the highest class in the American Asylum,

¹ First Report of Professor Day to the New York Institution, p. 194.

² The signs for the words enclosed in brackets, Professor Bartlett says, are not made, being necessarily supplied by the idiom.

on the visit of a Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature, on the education of deaf mutes, made February 13th, 1867, with their translation.

At the time of the visit made by the Committee the High Class consisted of *nine* pupils, of whom *four* were from Massachusetts. Only *three* of the nine were born deaf, and of the six who once had the sense of hearing two became deaf at the age of twelve years or upwards, one at the age of nine, and one at the age of four years. Their average age was seventeen years; the average length of time they had been in the Asylum was five years, four months, and twenty days.

They were under the instruction of Mr. Bull, who had been a teacher in the Asylum for many years.

The names, ages, etc. of the members of the class were as follows: —

1. John O'Harra, of Milford, Mass., fifteen years old, entered the Asylum at the age of eight and a half years; lost his hearing at the age of one year.
2. Daniel W. Cary, of Gardiner, Me., seventeen years old, entered the Asylum at the age of ten and a half years; was born deaf.
3. Ira H. Derby, South Weymouth, Mass., seventeen years of age, entered at the age of eleven and a half years; was born deaf.
4. Patrick Sullivan, North Providence, R. I., twenty years of age, entered at the age of thirteen and a half years; lost his hearing at the age of four years.
5. Eugene W. Wood, of Webster, Mass., nineteen years of age, entered at the age of thirteen; lost his hearing at the age of nine years.
6. Willie L. Hill, of Athol, Mass., sixteen years of age, entered at the age of fourteen and a half years; lost his hearing at the age of twelve. (Articulates perfectly.)
7. Miss Mary A. McKay, of River Point, R. I., seventeen years of age, entered at the age of eleven years; lost her hearing at the age of two years. (Articulates perfectly.)
8. Miss Elmina D. Clapp, Newburg, N. Y., sixteen years of

age, entered the Asylum at the age of ten years ; was born with imperfect hearing, but now reads the lips somewhat.

9. Miss Clara Dewsnap, Lakeville, Conn., sixteen years of age, entered the Asylum at twelve, at which age she lost her hearing.

To this class, thus constituted, the following exercise was given by Hon. Mr. Fay, the Chairman of the Committee : —

"Mr. Day said, a few days ago, in Boston : 'I noticed lately that the Kentucky Legislature voted to remove their capital (from Frankfort) to some place "hereafter to be designated" ; in other words, that it shall be put on wheels, until, in their mode of doing things, the location shall be raffled for.'"

This sentence was interpreted to the pupils by Mr. Bull, their teacher ; everything, the proper names excepted, (which were spelled out by the alphabet,) being communicated by the sign language. The words "from Frankfort" were omitted by Mr. Bull. The actual number of words given out was therefore 51. The interpretation by signs began at 4 o'clock 3 minutes and 15 seconds, P. M. The first exercise, that of Miss McKay, was finished at 4 12' 30", or in 9 minutes and 15 seconds. The last exercise, that of O'Harrar, was finished at 4 15', or in 11 minutes and 45 seconds. The average time was about 10 minutes and 15 seconds. The following are the exercises, as copied from the board by Mr. Redpath : —

No. 1.— Written by John O'Harrar, in 11 minutes and 45 seconds.

"A few days ago, Mr. Day told some gentlemen in Boston that he read in the newspaper that the Legislature of Kentucky agreed to remove their State House. So they put it on a cart, and went carrying it to some place where they would establish it. But they changed on playing dice. Finally, the other gained the victory, so they might establish the State House in the place which they found." (72 words.)

No. 2.—Written by Daniel W. Cary, in 11 minutes and 15 seconds.

“A few days ago, Mr. Day told some of his friends that he had read in a newspaper that the Legislature of Kentucky moved their State House on the place where they wanted to place it. They raffled with the dice that they might establish it as they decided.” (48 words.)

No. 3.—Written by Ira H. Derby, in 10 minutes and 45 seconds.

“A gentleman by the name of Day lived in Boston. He read a newspaper about the Governor of Kentucky, and Mr. Day talked to some gentlemen of the Governor of Kentucky. Some gentlemen of Kentucky were talking about the State House, and their State House was carried to some other place by a wagon.” (54 words.)

No. 4.—Written by Patrick Sullivan, in 10 minutes and 15 seconds.

“Some weeks ago, in Boston, Mr. Day told the Legislature about the new Governor of Kentucky. The Governor had been selected for a State House of the State of Kentucky. The State House was put in a wagon and was removed to that place. The man raffled something, and the State House was established in that place.” (57 words.)

No. 5.—Written by Eugene W. Wood, in about 10 minutes.

“A few days ago, while Mr. Day was in Boston, he read a newspaper and told gentlemen that the Legislature of Kentucky voted to remove the State House to another place. They could not tell where it was better to remove it. So they raffled and then placed it where they were informed.” (54 words.)

No. 6.—Written by W. L. Hill, in 9 minutes, 45 seconds.

“Some days ago a gentleman by the name of Day told some of his friends that he had read in a paper that the

State House of Kentucky was to be removed from its present site. But not agreeing with each other where it should be transferred, it was decided to shake for the situation." (55 words.)

No. 7.—Written by Miss McKay, in 9 minutes, 15 seconds.

"Mr. Day, a gentleman of Boston, told some gentlemen that he read in a paper that the Legislature of Kentucky had voted to remove the State House to another place. But as some difficulty occurred in deciding the place to which it should be removed, they settled the quarrel by raffling." (51 words.)

No. 8.—Written by Miss Clapp, in 9 minutes, 45 seconds.

"A gentleman by the name of Mr. Day read aloud a newspaper to the audience at Boston, which said that the people of Kentucky had agreed to remove the State House to some place, but still they don't know where they should remove it. So they cast lots, and then they found the right place where the State House should be placed on." (63 words.)

No. 9.—Written by Miss Dewsnap, in 9 minutes, 45 seconds.

"Mr. Day of Boston said that he read in a paper that a Committee in Kentucky had voted to build a new State House. The Committee cast lots to see whether it should remain where they built it, or remove it to some other place." (45 words.)

THE HARTFORD TEST APPLIED AT THE SCHOOL OF MISS ROGERS
IN CHELMSFORD.

On the 1st of March, 1867, the same test was applied to the only pupil of Miss Rogers of suitable age to attempt it. This was Roscoe Green, of Providence, R. I., 18 years old, who lost his hearing at the age of seven years. He had been instructed before that time in the primary school, but since then had only attended school for about seven months before

entering the school of Miss Rogers, where he had been under instruction since June 22d, 1866. His whole period of school instruction, therefore, since he lost his hearing, was less than a year and a half, or not a *third* part as long as the average of the High Class at Hartford. His age is about a year above their average.

The mode of giving out the passage was as follows. Miss Rogers placed Roscoe Green about fifteen feet from her, and read him the passage, which he read on her lips and repeated. The only word spelled ~~were~~ to him by the ~~man-~~ *tips* ~~ual alphabet~~ was "Kentucky." After this reading was completed, (the time occupied being six minutes and thirty seconds,) he was told to write it down from memory. This he did in two minutes and thirty seconds ; making the whole time occupied just nine minutes.

The following is the passage as written by Roscoe Green :—

"I noticed Mr. ~~was~~ was the other day in Boston, saying that the Legislature of Kentucky had decided to remove their Capital from its present position to a location to be decided upon hereafter, or in other words to put it on wheels ; that is, the location is to be raffled for." (51 words.)

In order to show how rapidly the single operation of writing down the words from the immediate dictation of the teacher could be performed, the following passage was given out. It may be found on the first page of "Every Saturday" for March 9th, and had never been seen by teacher or pupil.

"Without knowing the language of a people we never really know their thoughts, their feelings, and their type of character ; and unless we do possess this knowledge of some other people than ourselves, we remain, to the hour of our death —"

This was written down by Roscoe as follows :—

"Without knowing the language of a people, we never really know their thoughts, their feelings, and their type of character, and unless we do possess this knowledge of some

other people than ourselves, we remain to the hour of our death" (44 words.)

The time occupied in writing the above was a little less than five minutes from the time the reading began. Miss Rogers began to read a few seconds after four o'clock, and the writing was finished a few seconds before 4 5'. The number of words taken down being nearly as many as were actually interpreted at Hartford, and the time occupied being less than half as long, the rapidity of communication was twice as great in the case of Roscoe Green, while the accuracy of the transcript made from reading the lips of the teacher is almost as perfect as if the printed page had been placed before him.

When we consider the results obtained by instruction in the sign language, we cannot be surprised at the dissatisfaction expressed by the deaf mutes of this vicinity with the present method of instruction, nor at the desire that some other system should at least be tried. In Boston and the adjacent cities there are from 150 to 175 deaf mutes, over 40 of whom are between the ages of 5 and 15. Of the adults 93 have signed petitions to the Legislature praying for the removal of the pupils from Hartford. Nor are we surprised at the strong expression of Dr. Kitto, a deaf mute himself: "Signs as a means of intercourse I always abominated."

Great and good results have been accomplished by the deaf-mute schools in this country; thousands have been instructed, not only in various branches of education, but in many mechanical arts. So that, instead of being a burden to the State or their friends, they can support themselves and families, and amply repay the cost of their own education.

The question naturally arises, Cannot deaf mutes as well as other children be taught the English language, without first learning this difficult pantomimic dialect? The advocates of this system reply, that children learn language unconsciously, and by distinct and separate sounds in different words; while to the deaf language does not come in words, but must be addressed to the eye by signs. Hence

the great difficulty of teaching a language of words to the deaf mute. To this we agree ; the first steps must unquestionably be by signs, but just as we would teach any child. When the mother reaches out her arms to her baby, and with a smile says, "Come to mamma," the little one springs forward with outstretched arms. It does not understand the words, but comprehends and answers to the sign. But there is a great difference between the child's language of signs, by which it expresses a child's wants and desires, and that complicated pantomimic dialect, built up by forty years of thought, skill, and labor, intended to be perfect, full, and comprehensive, but which in reality makes the deaf mute a foreigner to his own friends, and to his own literature.

We believe that signs are needed only in the beginning of instruction ; they should be early translated into words, and as soon as possible laid entirely aside. Words should be made their own exponents, and they will gradually become the language in which the deaf mute will think, speak, and read.

We do not now refer to the subject of articulation,—whether the child shall be taught to utter the sound with the lips, or spell it upon the fingers. The point which we urge is simply this, that ideas and thoughts shall be expressed in words common to all, and not in pantomimic signs, the language of the Asylum. That words possess a power which signs can never have, that they convey ideas to a mind which cannot be taught by signs, is shown in the instruction of several blind deaf mutes.

Julia Brace was born at Hartford in the year 1807. At the age of four years and five months she had an attack of typhus fever, and lost the senses of both sight and hearing, though her smell and touch were unimpaired. Previous to this she had been perfectly healthy, with the full use of all her senses and faculties, and was a promising child. She had been to school, could read and spell words of two syllables, and say her prayers. She retained her speech about a year, and could pronounce a few words for about three years. She

entered the American Asylum in 1828, at the age of eighteen.¹ "It was an object of much interest on her admission to try the effect of some experiments in teaching her language, and the Professors indulged the hope, that ultimately they might devise some plan to communicate even some abstract ideas, and especially moral and religious truth." A few natural signs she learned rapidly ; but as the language of pantomime is addressed to the eye, little further progress could be made. After she had been an inmate of the Asylum twelve years, her name being entered in the catalogues as a pupil, Mr. Weld the principal says :² " We cannot speak to her of mind, or of spiritual existence in any form, and if we should attempt it successfully she might not have the ability to make us aware of our success." "The hope was entertained that her curiosity would be excited, and that a way might be discovered to convey to her mind the great idea of the Almighty Creator. The attempt was not successful, and, though several times repeated, has not as yet resulted in exciting her mind, fixing her attention, or giving us any encouraging indications."

Laura Bridgman was born at Hanover, N. H., in 1829. When she was two years old she lost the senses of sight and hearing entirely, and of smell partially. Dr. Howe first heard of her through a report of the American Asylum, when she was nearly eight years of age, and shortly after she entered the Asylum for the Blind at South Boston. Using the few signs she knew, she was taught their synomyms in words spelt out upon the fingers. These words were formed into sentences, and gradually her language grew, until at the end of the first year she had attained such dexterity in the use of the manual alphabet, that only those accustomed to it could follow with the eye the rapid motions of her fingers. At the end of the second year she had about the same amount of language as children generally possess at three years of

¹ The average age of the pupils on admission was then from 16 to 18. See Twentieth Report American Asylum, for 1836, p. 25.

² Twenty-First Report American Asylum, for 1837, pp. 15, 29.

age. She spelled her thoughts upon her fingers when she supposed herself alone, and in her dreams. The lady who instructed her for several years says: "After three years' instruction she could understand perfectly any story which would be intelligible to a child of her age. I could read a page from a book with my fingers as rapidly as I should read aloud to a company of thirty persons in a good-sized room. No fingers have ever yet been able to move too rapidly for her. She reads all the books in raised letters in the library, for the blind without difficulty. When she meets with a new word she asks some one the meaning, as I should if I had no Dictionary at hand." Laura reads and understands the Bible, and was admitted to the Baptist Church several years ago, after a satisfactory examination of the grounds of her faith.

On the eighth day of March, 1847, the following sentence, taken at random from Mr. Bowles's book, was read to Laura Bridgman: "The hills are rich with pine forests, and these grow thicker and the trees larger and of greater variety, as also the valleys wider and seem more fertile, as the road progresses into Oregon." 34 words. Time occupied 50 seconds. Laura then took her writing tablet and wrote it down from memory, as follows, in eight minutes and forty-five seconds: "The hills are rich with pine forts, and those grow thick, the trees are enlarged and of greater variety, and also the valleys widen, and seem more fertile and the road progresses into the Oregon."

The word "forts" for "forests" is evidently a slip of the pencil. The general correctness is remarkable, and the time occupied was about the same as that of the slowest pupil in the exercise at Hartford. At the same time another sentence of thirty words was read to her in 35 seconds, which she repeated in 30 seconds.

Oliver Caswell was born November 1, 1829. He lost his senses of sight and hearing when he was three years and five months old. He continued to speak for a short time, but at the end of six months lost all power of articulation. He entered the Blind Asylum September 30, 1841; he then

used a few signs, but these were soon laid aside, and by the end of a year he had learned about a hundred nouns and some adjectives. His temperament was lymphatic, while Laura's was nervous ; but he was a patient, persevering worker. He can now converse on all common topics, and in the language of familiar conversation he rarely requires the explanation of a single word, but does not hesitate to ask when a word is used which is new to him. He writes a good letter, though he is called in the Forty-Third Report of the New York Institute for Deaf Mutes (p. 32) "the dull Oliver Caswell." Both of these children were taught words by the manual alphabet.

In 1842, when Julia Brace was nearly thirty-five years old, she was taken to South Boston. "There was, however, about her inexpressive face and her attitude and demeanor an entire passivity, denoting habitual inattention to external objects. She was pleased to learn new words, but could not remember the words any length of time,—the natural result of the long inactivity of her brain, and of her having passed the age when the perceptive faculties are vividly and almost spontaneously at work."¹ It was, however, perfectly obvious to her teachers that there was no natural incapacity for the use of language, and they fully believed that, had she been taught at an early age by the same method as Laura Bridgeman, the same results would have followed.

ARTICULATION.

Hitherto we have aimed to show that, if the deaf mute is to be taught the English language, this can be better accomplished by the manual alphabet, and without the use of the pantomimic language of signs. Our next topic, Articulation, or teaching the deaf mute to speak and read on the lips, is separate and distinct.

When Mr. Gallaudet visited France articulation was taught in all the English and in many of the European schools, and although, before leaving home, he had commenced to teach Alice Coggeswell to articulate, and apparently with good suc-

¹ Tenth Report Perkins Blind Asylum, for 1842, p. 60.

cess, he returned with all the prejudices against this system which Sicard had inherited from the Abbé de l'Épée, and which seem to have originated with the latter in a personal dispute between himself and Heinicke, the German teacher of articulation.

It was therefore stated at the very founding of the American Asylum, that articulation would form no part of the course of instruction, and that the teachers would "not waste their labor and that of their pupils upon this comparatively useless branch of their education";¹ and again, twelve years later, that "All efforts to accomplish articulation are now considered useless, and are wholly abandoned."²

"Until 1844 no teacher of deaf mutes, excepting Mr. Gallaudet, had visited any part of Europe for the purpose of inquiring on the spot into the value and results of the method there pursued, and Mr. Gallaudet derived his knowledge of the German system from books only."³ For a generation our institutions had been pursuing one system, without any accurate knowledge of other methods, until Mr. Mann, then Secretary of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts, visited the German institutions, and upon his return made a report of the system of educating the deaf mutes in Germany.

Mr. Mann's report caused so great "a clamor," that the American Asylum at once sent their Principal, Mr. Weld, and the New York Institution sent Professor Day, now of Yale College, formerly a teacher at the New York Institution, to examine into the German system, and visit the European schools. The spirit in which they made their examination is forcibly stated in a discourse delivered by Professor Wagner, Principal of the school at Gmünd, at a convention of teachers of deaf mutes. After commenting upon the report of Professor Day, he says: "He, Mr. Day, came among us deeply imbued with Chinese prejudices; with his watch in

¹ Third Report American Asylum, for 1819, p. 7.

² Twelfth Report American Asylum.

³ Twenty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1845, p. 26.

one hand and his purse in the other, he visited our schools, and observed narrowly and with distrust our mode of instruction and its results. What report of it has he made at home? He has ridiculed our work. He says: ‘Your way is good for nothing,—it costs too much money and time. Indeed, I have found it so miserable that a real feeling of delicacy forbids me from fully exposing it. Chinese!’ he adds, ‘let everything be as it has been. I would, however, advise you to begin the method of articulation with some classes of deaf mutes.’ If,” continues the Professor, “they should follow his counsel, they would lay the foundation of an entire change, which would soon be accomplished.”¹

Mr. Day says: “The difference between the best German schools and our own is very striking, so striking, indeed, that I feel unwilling to state in full my convictions on the subject.”² “It is not to be denied that the German method of instruction is attended with certain advantages. It aids a small number, who once were able to speak like others, to retain the spoken language they still possess, and to recover that which they have lost. It affords assistance to the smaller number, who still retain a considerable degree of hearing.”³

Mr. Weld closes a long and able report of his mission by a comparison between the German and French or American systems, and says: “On the whole the merits of the German method have been far less striking and beneficial. I can then recommend no fundamental change. Yet,” he says, “there are some classes who might be benefited by receiving instruction in articulation; these are the semi-mutes and semi-deaf pupils.” And at the next meeting of the Directors, in May, 1845, it was voted, “That, in view of the facts and results obtained with regard to teaching deaf mutes to articulate, they would give it a full and prolonged trial, and do in this branch of instruction everything that was practically and permanently useful.”⁴

¹ Thirty-Third Report American Asylum, for 1849, p. 43.

² Mr. Day’s Report, 1845, p. 190.

³ Ibid., p. 207.

⁴ Twenty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1845, p. 120.

Professor Morel, of the Royal Institution of Paris, examined some of the German institutions in company with Mr. Weld, and gives the result of his observations in a note to Mr. Weld. In conclusion he says: "Instruction in articulation ought to be introduced into the schools for deaf mutes. I believe that the essays which have been made hitherto in France and other countries have been made with neither zeal nor perseverance, nor on conditions favorable enough to bring forth satisfactory results. Would it not be easier to introduce instruction in articulation into a new school, than into an old school where the language of signs has acquired a great development? It is certain that in our schools the mimic language intervenes too constantly in the relations of the masters with the pupils, and of the latter among themselves."¹

How this "full and prolonged trial" of the German plan, "under a systematic and thorough course," was conducted, and what were its results, we learn from subsequent reports. There were at this time thirty pupils in the institution who retained some little speech or hearing. Upon those two classes of persons "daily instruction" was bestowed in articulation; "but they were taught by signs, as it was easier for them to learn the signs used in the school, and acquire knowledge through them, than to depend upon speech."² A few years later we read, "Each hearing teacher gives twenty minutes daily in school hours to the proper subjects of his own class, and a part of those taught by deaf mutes,"³ making perhaps five minutes a day to each pupil for instruction in learning to pronounce and read from the lips a foreign language. The results they report "were encouraging, and to a limited extent successful; the speech of several of the pupils was improved in scope and distinctness, and also their ability to read from the lips." Are not these results much greater than could have been expected from the amount of time and labor bestowed, and the manner of instruction given?

¹ Twenty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1845, p. 127.

² Thirtieth Report American Asylum, for 1846, p. 19.

³ Thirty-Ninth Report American Asylum, for 1855, p. 11.

But there were objections to this system, for “ while the teacher is occupied with the speaking portion of his pupils, he can give little or no attention to the remainder: consequently the time spent in this way must, to this latter portion, be in a great measure lost.” The Directors, therefore, employed a young lady “ to devote her time to this department of instruction out of school hours, and at such other times as would least interfere with the regular exercises of the school-room ”; but these articulating pupils continued “ to be classed and taught with the deaf mutes in the usual method.”¹ We are prepared to hear that this experiment was not successful, and that about 1863 the teacher of articulation was dispensed with, and all regular efforts to teach articulation and reading from the lips were abandoned.

The experiment failed, (but not the system,) and will always fail if attempted in a school where the sign language is the vernacular. A fair trial can only be made where articulation and reading from the lips form the only medium of communication taught, and the only one allowed. The two cannot be carried on together. The language of signs is without doubt more attractive to the deaf mute, and will be the language of his life, if he is encouraged in its use. If the trial is to be made, if the experiment is to be fairly and honestly tested, it must be in schools established for that purpose, and under teachers earnestly and heartily engaged in the work, and at least hopeful of success. Hartford has no faith in the system. It has tried it and has failed. The Professors are satisfied with results secured by the present system and strongly and conscientiously opposed to any change. Had the experiment a chance of success under such circumstances ?

According to the statistics furnished by the American Asylum in 1857, out of 1,076 pupils received in that institution 542 were born deaf, 483 lost their hearing by sickness, and 51 from unknown causes ; 236 lost their hearing under two years of age, 107 between two and three, and 140 over three years of age.

¹ Forty-Third Report American Asylum, for 1859, p. 11.

According to statistics furnished by the New York Institution in 1865, out of 559 pupils in that institution from 1854 to 1864, 207 were born deaf, 217 lost their hearing by sickness, and 135 from unknown causes; 75 lost their hearing under two years of age, 74 between two and five, 40 at five and upwards, that is, 114, or three tenths of the whole number of pupils, must have spoken and preserved for a time some memory of language. This does not include those who have still some hearing, which would probably increase the number of this class to nearly one half. Yet Dr. Stone informs us that only about one twentieth of the pupils in the American Asylum can profitably be instructed in articulation. The smallness of this number can be accounted for by the wide-spread opinion that language cannot be preserved to a deaf child, and the consequent want of effort on the part of the parent to teach the child until it is old enough to be sent to Hartford. Meanwhile language is to a great extent forgotten, memory of sound lost, pantomime substituted for speech; the organs of articulation by disuse have lost somewhat of their flexibility, while the difficulty is greatly increased by the unwillingness of the child to make the necessary effort.

Dr. Kitto felt this reluctance. He says: "Although I have no recollection of physical pain in the act of speaking, I felt the strongest possible indisposition to use my vocal organs. I seemed to labor under a moral disability which cannot be described by comparison with any disinclination which the reader can be supposed to have experienced. The force of this tendency to dumbness was so great, that for many years I habitually expressed myself to others in writing. Signs as a means of intercourse I always abominated, and no one could annoy me more than by adopting this mode of communication. In fact, I came to be generally considered as both deaf and dumb. I now speak with considerable ease and freedom, and in personal intercourse never resort to any other than the oral mode of communication."¹

¹ *The Lost Senses*, by Dr. Kitto, p. 20

My little daughter lost her hearing at five years of age ; her articulation was very imperfect, much more so than that of most children. She knew most, but not all, of her letters. The severe attack of scarlet-fever which deprived her of all hearing left her for a year very feeble. Her vocal organs were weakened, her speech grew gradually more indistinct, and she became disinclined to talk. We were told by teachers of deaf mutes that nothing could be done to *preserve* her speech, and that our only course was to send her, as soon as she should be old enough, to one of the Institutions, and educate her as a deaf mute. But she could speak, and, encouraged by what we heard from Dr. Howe of the German system, we determined to use every effort to retain what language she then had, and, if possible, to add to it. Our task was arduous, and at times we were almost discouraged ; but the results of four years of labor have assured us of success. Little Mabel has nearly as much language as children of her age, can speak so as to make herself understood, and can understand any one who will speak to her slowly and distinctly.

Our little one represents a large class that might be trained in the same way, and with like results. Other cases have lately come under our own observation, of pupils older and further advanced, who have been taught by this method. Of one of these, a young man of eighteen, we have spoken in our account of the Chelmsford school ; of another, a young girl of fifteen, we would shrink from speaking had she not, by years of patient labor, learned to converse even with strangers with such ease, grace, and simplicity, that it seemed wrong, from motives of delicacy, to pass her without a word. ~We believe in each of these cases it was from Dr. Howe that the parents received encouragement to pursue a system which has resulted so successfully.~

EARLY EDUCATION OF DEAF MUTES.

We have already referred to the difference between the ages of commencing the instruction of deaf mutes in European schools and in the American Asylum. In the former the aver-

age age of admission is seven, while in the American Asylum the Directors advise that "school education should not commence earlier than ten, or be deferred later than twelve years of age, and for many reasons the latter age is preferable."¹

The objections urged by the Principal of the Hartford Asylum against receiving pupils under twelve years of age are, that home influences are peculiarly important to the little child; that as but six years are allowed for instruction, greater progress can be made between the ages of ten or twelve and eighteen than at any other period, and that at an earlier age than twelve the pupils could not be taught a trade by which they might in after life gain their own support.

Home influences are no doubt of great value to the deaf mute, but they generally reach only to the education of the affections. The reports quoted show that in most cases before entering the Asylum no effort has been made to instruct the mind of the child, or to train its mental powers. Indeed, the parent is cautioned not "to attempt the more difficult and abstract terms, lest, from his imperfect acquaintance with the language of signs, he should communicate false ideas, or weary and disgust the mind."² There are also many objections to sending a little child to a large asylum, that would not obtain were it sent to a small family school of fifteen or twenty pupils, or to a primary day school in Boston, where there are a sufficient number of children to form such a school. It would seem peculiarly important that the little deaf mute should commence its instruction at as early an age as possible. If the effort is to be made to save the speech early lost, or to teach articulation to the congenital mute, the earlier the child is placed under instruction the better. The organs of speech are more flexible, the powers of observation quicker, the memory more retentive. A child will acquire a foreign language with much less difficulty than an adult. We have seen little children speaking four languages with equal facility.

¹ Fiftieth Report American Asylum, for 1866, p. 15.

² Twenty-Seventh Report American Asylum, for 1843, p. 11.

The importance of these views, and the necessity of early education in preparatory schools, have been deeply felt at Hartford, and in 1854 and 1855 the buildings of the Asylum were enlarged for the purpose (among other things) of organizing a juvenile department, with accommodations for thirty or forty children under ten years of age. The Directors report that such an arrangement will enable them "to receive the children of parents who are able to pay for their support, and who are anxious to have them at school before they reach the age of eight. A longer time than six or eight years is requisite thoroughly to educate deaf mutes, and, if provision was made to extend the time by the State, the objection to receiving any pupils under ten would be removed. We ought to secure to the American Asylum the credit of taking the first step in this direction, and of thus offering the advantages of instruction to such young children as contemplated a thorough and extended course of training."¹ We find but one further reference in their reports to this department, and presume the plan was abandoned, as the new building is now used for other purposes.

The State of New York in 1863 provided "for the education of deaf-mute children between the ages of six and twelve, whenever the county authorities were satisfied that the parents were in indigent circumstances, and that their health, morals, and comfort were endangered if left at home." Under this law, thirty were at once received into the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. In the last report of the Directors of this Asylum, they say: "These little children, many under seven and eight, were but a few months before barely able to make their physical wants known by uncouth signs, and not always able to do that clearly. After a few months of instruction and social communion with their fellow-pupils, they generally become keen-looking, vivacious, quick in comprehending signs, able to relate with graphic detail in signs each his own experience, and to enjoy with keen

¹ Thirty-Eighth Report American Asylum, for 1854, p. 25. Thirty-Ninth Report, for 1855, p. 10.

zest such relations by others. The promptness and correctness with which some of the younger division of this class, in appearance almost infantile, and only a few months under instruction, answered by writing a number of simple questions, were especially interesting."¹

Massachusetts provides a good education for her hearing children, between the ages of five and fifteen. Have not the little deaf mutes an equal claim upon her kindness and care? And yet for them no provision is made, until they are eight or ten years old. These little ones are left in solitude and in silence, unable to receive any ideas from others, or express more than their simplest wants.

Between two and three years ago Mr. Packard, a deaf mute, opened a small day school in Boston, and soon had a class of twenty-three little ones too young to enter the Asylum at Hartford. Application for aid was made to the School Committee of Boston, and refused.

NUMBER OF DEAF MUTES.

The very imperfect returns of the census show that throughout the country there is one deaf mute to every 2,275 inhabitants. By the census returns of 1850, there appeared to be 1,403 deaf mutes in New England; and by the corrected returns of 1860 there were reported to be no less than 2,000 deaf mutes. In Massachusetts alone there are probably not less than 730. The number of pupils in Hartford in 1850 was 210; in 1860, 264; in 1865, 267. Average attendance in 1860, 222; in 1865, 212. One in nine of the deaf mutes in New England was under instruction at the Asylum in 1860.

In 1860 there were 2,077 deaf mutes in New York. The number of pupils at the Institution for Deaf Mutes was 348; in 1865, 450. Average attendance in 1860, 300;² in 1865, 406. One in six of the deaf mutes was under instruction. In five years in New York there was an increase of 106 in the average attendance of the pupils; while at Hartford there was a decrease of 12.

¹ Forty-Seventh Report New York Institution, for 1866, p. 52.

² Twelve of these were from New Jersey.

One in seven and a half of the deaf mutes from Massachusetts attended the school at Hartford in 1865. In the city of Cambridge, the same year, one fourth of the inhabitants were between the ages of five and fifteen, and one in five attended the *public* schools.

From these statistics it appears that, while the number of deaf mutes in New England and the number of pupils at the New York Institution are increasing, the number in the school at Hartford is decreasing; that, while New York provides for the education of one in six of the deaf population, New England provides for only one in nine; and that Massachusetts provides for the education of one in five of her entire population in the public schools. No class needs instruction so much as the deaf mutes, or so fully repays the cost to the State; yet Massachusetts makes provision for the education of not more than one half.

The school at Hartford is already full: only a few more pupils can be conveniently accommodated without an increase of buildings. If these are erected, it will cause a further encroachment upon the productive property of the Asylum, and, the reduced income being divided among a greater number of pupils, it will leave a smaller sum for each one, and so increase the sum which must be paid by the States for each pupil. The expense to the State must therefore be greater for the future than in the past, should our deaf mutes still be sent to Hartford.

THE ARTICULATING SCHOOL OF MISS ROGERS.

In October, 1864, Miss Harriet B. Rogers, sister of one of the teachers of Laura Bridgman and Oliver Caswell, had placed under her charge Fanny Cushing, a little deaf mute, whom she was to teach the manual alphabet and articulation. Miss Rogers soon found that, if she was to teach articulation successfully, it must be by itself. It was an experiment, and Miss Rogers was unwilling to take the responsibility without the approbation of the child's friends. She consulted

Fanny's parents, who agreed that the manual alphabet should be given up, and reading from the lips substituted. In a few months she became so interested in her work, and so convinced of its ultimate success, that, at the suggestion of Dr. Howe and other friends of the deaf mutes, she opened an articulating school for deaf mutes at Chelmsford.

The articulation of most of the pupils is very imperfect, and almost as unintelligible to strangers as the sign language; perhaps to some signs seem preferable to the indistinct utterances of these pupils. But few children, even with the ear to guide them, learn to talk plainly until they are four or five years old, and these little ones should have at least an equal chance. That articulation and reading from the lips can be acquired by deaf mutes, so as to be made a medium of intelligible communication with those around them, has been in individual cases unquestionably proved, and we see no reason why the same method should not be generally successful. That the lessons in articulation have not thus far retarded the progress of these children in other branches, we can show by a comparison with older children who have been under instruction at Hartford for the same length of time, and with this advantage, that what the Chelmsford pupils know, they know in words.

With the exception of two pupils, these children could communicate only by the few natural signs common to all deaf mutes when they entered the school. Sometimes natural signs are used at first to teach them the meaning of words, and when no longer needed are thrown aside.

No new signs are being acquired by the pupils, and in their recitations and at table conversation is carried on by articulation and reading from the lips. When by themselves they sometimes accompany their words by signs, but words are constantly gaining the ascendency. Their thoughts, as far as can be ascertained, are in words, and their teacher has several times heard them talk in their sleep.

At Hartford, the class that entered on September 15, 1866, when five months at school, had acquired one hundred and

fifty nouns, forty adjectives, and twenty verbs ; the pupils could count to thirty, and write single words and a few simple sentences, but could not write their ages on the blackboard.

At Chelmsford, W. S. Langdon, seven years and a half old,¹ lost his hearing at five and a half years of age. After spending six months at school he could read from the lips, write, spell, and explain the meaning of two hundred and eighty words, and about one hundred and fifty sentences formed from these words, and count to one hundred backward and forward. In seven and a half months he could spell over four hundred words, and form sentences from them ; he added small numbers, and wrote home every week.

W. F. Morse, seven years and eight months old, was born a deaf mute. Six months after entering the school he could read from the lips, spell aloud, explain the meaning of two hundred and eight words, and commenced his fourth writing-book. Wishing a cracker one day, he said, "Please give me some rough white cake!" In seven and a half months he could spell over four hundred words, form sentences from them, add small numbers, and write home.

H. Jordan, seven years and eight months old, was born a deaf mute. Five months after entering the school he could read from the lips, write and spell like children in common schools, explain the meaning of one hundred and seventy words and about one hundred and forty sentences formed from these words, which he read from the book and lips. He could count up to one hundred, and write.

A. Keith, seven years and eight months old, lost his hearing at two years of age ; before he became deaf, he spoke but nine words. On entering school he spoke twelve words, three or four of which were family names. Six months after he knew two hundred and twenty words, of which thirty-five were verbs, and thirty-nine adjectives ; could count to two hundred, and add small numbers, as $25 + 7$, $94 + 10$.

The others are farther advanced.

¹ The ages given are the ages on entering the school.

CONCLUSIONS.

We have thus endeavored to show,—

1. That signs were introduced into this country by pure accident, without any examination into the merits of other systems; Mr. Gallaudet having been refused admission to the articulating schools of England, where he first applied, and subsequently admitted to the French school, where the sign language was used.
2. That the management of the schools for deaf mutes at Hartford is controlled by a foreign and private corporation, over which neither this nor any other State has any visitorial oversight.
3. That one great object in educating the deaf mute is to teach him the English language, and that this object is never accomplished by the teachers of the sign language. This is shown in their own words. Mutes are “always foreigners among their own kindred, nay, more than foreigners, for our speech is for them absolutely unattainable.”
4. That, while other systems of teaching deaf mutes had been long practised abroad, no examination was made of those methods until after the report of Mr. Horace Mann, in 1843.
5. That in consequence of this report gentlemen were immediately sent abroad from New York and Hartford to examine these systems, and, although reporting strongly against the articulating system, recommended its being taught in certain cases.
6. That articulation and reading on the lips were then taught for many years, without faith in their success, and under such surroundings that failure was inevitable. That all regular and persistent efforts for teaching articulation and reading from the lips are now abandoned.
7. That the sign language is not required for teaching the pupil to receive and communicate ideas in our mother tongue both accurately and quickly, is shown in the cases of Laura Bridgman and Oliver Caswell, with whom the manual al-

phabet succeeded when signs failed, as also in the case of Julia Brace.

8. That nearly half of the deaf mutes in this State have either once spoken, or have now some power of hearing, and are proper pupils of an articulating school.

9. That it is not advisable to send children under twelve years of age to so large a school as the Hartford Asylum, and that such little ones, still needing a home influence, can be better taught in family or day schools.

10. That while the number of deaf mutes in New England increased largely from 1860 to 1865, the average number of pupils at Hartford decreased, showing a need of reform either in the school, the public, or the friends of the deaf mute.

11. That a very large proportion of the adult deaf mutes in the vicinity of Boston have shown by their evidence and petitions their desire that this State would undertake the instruction of its own deaf mutes.

12. That the school at Hartford must soon require expensive additional buildings to accommodate the increasing number of deaf mutes; that these expenditures will reduce the productive income which must be divided among a greater number of pupils, so increasing the expense of the State.

13. That a school for teaching articulation is in successful operation in this State, under the care of Miss Rogers at Chelmsford, where a limited number of pupils can be taught, if the same appropriation is made for their education as for that of the pupils of the Hartford school.

14. That, if a school for deaf mutes be incorporated by this State, it is believed that private benefactions will be liberally made.

Clarke & Son.

Miss L. L. Redden
with kind regards

from A. G. B.

Portsmouth Mass. March 18th

VISIBLE SPEECH

AS A MEANS OF

Communicating Articulation to Deaf-Mutes.

BY A. GRAHAM BELL,

Member of the Philological Society, London, Eng.

From the American Annals of the Deaf and Dumb, January, 1872.

THE system of "Visible Speech" was invented by my father, Mr. A. Melville Bell, professor of vocal physiology ; and it constitutes a new species of phonetic writing, based, not upon sounds, but upon the actions of the vocal organs in producing them.

The plan originated fully a quarter of a century ago ; and the germ of the invention was published in the first edition of "The Principles of Speech," (1849.)

The idea conceived was that of representing the sounds of all languages by means of one alphabet, the characters of which should reveal to the eye the organic formation of the sounds. Although my father's professional duties as a corrector of the defects of utterance directly favored the study of the organic formation of sounds, still, the difficulties in the way of carrying out the idea were so great that it was not until 1864 that the plan took definite shape. Then, indeed, a scheme of letters was produced which claimed to be so perfect as to represent *any sound the human mouth could utter*.

Linguists and men of science were invited to test the truth of this assertion. The invitation was accepted ;

and for three years the most searching tests were applied in public and in private. The following facts were abundantly proved :

1st. That the sounds of any language could be written by means of Visible Speech ; and,

2d. That a person unacquainted with a language could pronounce it at sight, with vernacular correctness, while deducing his pronunciation solely from the physiological symbols.

An account of a few of the earlier experiments was published in a pamphlet entitled “Visible Speech ; a New Fact Demonstrated,” (1864.)

To convey an idea of the nature of these experiments, I quote a description of one from a letter to the *Reader*, by Mr. A. J. Ellis, the distinguished author of the “Essentials of Phonetics.” Mr. Ellis says :

“The mode of procedure was as follows : Mr. Bell sent his two sons, who were to read the writing, out of the room—it is interesting to know that the elder, who read all the words in this case, had only had five weeks’ instruction in the use of the alphabet—and I dictated slowly and distinctly the sounds which I wished to be written.

“These consisted of a few words in Latin, pronounced first as at Eton, then as in Italy, and then according to some theoretical notions of how the Latins might have uttered them. Then came some English provincialisms and affected pronunciations ; the words ‘how odd’ being given in several distinct ways.

“Suddenly German provincialisms were introduced. Then discriminations of sounds often confused : *eis*, *is'*, (Polish;) *eesh*, *ich*, (German;) *ich*, (Dutch;) *ich*, (Swiss;) *oui*, *oui*, (French;) *we*, (English;) *wie*, (German;) *vie*, (French.) Then some Arabic, some Cockney-English, with an introduced Arabic guttural, some mispronounced Spanish, and a variety of shades of vowels and diphthongs.

* * * * The result was perfectly satisfactory ; that is, Mr. Bell wrote down my queer and purposely-exaggerated pronunciations and mispronunciations, and delicate distinctions, in such a manner that his sons, not having heard them, so uttered them as to surprise me by the extremely correct echo of my own voice. * *

Accent, tone, drawl, brevity, indistinctness, were all reproduced with surprising accuracy. Being on the watch, I could, as it were, trace the alphabet in the lips of the readers. I think, then, that Mr. Bell is justified in the somewhat bold title which he has assumed for his mode of writing—‘Visible Speech.’”

This examination of the capabilities of the system, which may fairly be called an *experimentum crucis*, was made before the symbols of Visible Speech had been exhibited to Mr. Ellis. As he is, perhaps, the best living authority on the subject of phonetics, it may be interesting to know the opinion he formed of the *theoretical details* of the system when these were presented to him. I quote from another letter of his.

After referring to his own works, those of Amman, De Kempelen, Johannes Müller, K. M. Rapp, C. R. Lepsius, E. Brücke, S. S. Haldeiman, Max Müller, and “a host of other works of more or less pretensions and value,” (the treatises enumerated containing perhaps “a complete account of the present state of phonetical knowledge,”) he says:

“Now, it is with this full and distinct recollection of works which I have not only read, but studied, many of them with great care and attention, that I feel called upon to declare that until Mr. Melville Bell unfolded to me his careful, elaborate, yet simple and complete system, I had no knowledge of alphabetics as a science. Much had been done. * * * But alphabetics as a science—and I have looked for it far and wide—did not exist. We did not know what elementary sounds or modifications of sound should be expressed, and the art of expressing such as had been pretty generally received was in a state of the greatest confusion.”

USES OF THE INVENTION.

Among the uses of the system most interesting to the general reader, I may note:

1st. *The correction of stammering and other defects of speech; and the communication of articulation to deaf-mutes, by showing the proper position of the mouth in forming sounds.*

2d. *The teaching of illiterate adults in all countries to read their own language from books printed in the system.*

The imperfectly phonetic character of all previous alphabets has been the cause of the great length of time required to master the art of reading. Had each sound an invariable representative, and each letter an invariable sound, a pupil would commence to read whenever the

powers of the letters had been acquired. Hence, the hope is indulged, that, when works have been printed in the Visible Speech typography, illiterate adults may be enabled to read such books *in a few days*.

3d. *The formation of a system of raised letters, of universal applicability, for the use of the blind.*

This is a development of the stenographic alphabet of Visible Speech. The words are capable of contraction according to the rules of stenography, so that works printed in this system need not be nearly so bulky as those at present used by the blind.

4th. *The writing of hitherto unwritten tongues for missionary and other purposes.*

No instance of failure has yet occurred in the representation of the most difficult sounds, taken from over fifty languages.

5th. To the comparative philologist Visible Speech is invaluable, as a means whereby fast-disappearing dialects may be preserved for study and comparison, and the affinities of words be exhibited to the eye.

It must not be supposed that this list exhausts the applications of the system. It has been adapted to the wants of stenographic reporters in all countries, to the telegraphing of all languages without translation, and other new uses are constantly suggested.

The applications of the system were early seen to be so many and important that the British press was loud in its support of the inventor in his appeal to the English government for aid in publishing and applying his system. This appeal was unsuccessful; and so, in 1867, Professor Bell produced the inaugural edition of the system, entitled "Visible Speech; the Science of Universal Alphabetic."

APPLICATION TO DEAF-MUTES.

In 1869, the first attempt was made to communicate a knowledge of the symbols to deaf-mutes. This experi-

ment was tried at a private establishment in South Kensington, England, conducted by Miss Hull.

No difficulty was found in giving the idea of the symbols to four children, the oldest about twelve and the youngest about seven years of age, and nearly all the elementary sounds of English were obtained from them *in a few days.*

It was at once evident that Visible Speech would be an instrument of great power in the hands of teachers of the deaf and dumb; and it became an absorbing problem how best to use it. Becoming, myself, intensely interested in the subject, I wrote to Mr. Peet, of New York, wishing to experiment with the symbols in the institution for deaf-mutes there. This was impossible at that time; but Mr. Peet brought the subject before the notice of American teachers at the recent Indianapolis Convention.

Since the experiment in South Kensington, a theoretical plan of instruction has been devised, but no opportunity was found of applying it till the spring of the present year.

In the meantime, Miss Hull, though laboring under the disadvantage of having no definite plan to work by, has been experimenting further with the symbols in her school. In a letter just received from her, referring to a visit from Miss Rogers, the principal of the Clarke Institution, she says: "My school will be the representative in England of your father's system applied to the deaf, which I, too, believe to be the true philosophical foundation for instruction in articulation."

Comparing the results obtained by her with those produced by Mr. Van Praagh, in London, working upon the German method, she says: "I certainly think our pupils spoke much plainer and more readily after six months' instruction than his did after twelve; but of course I am a prejudiced judge in that matter. I look to Visible Speech to obtain much greater and more certain results than any yet produced."

The lectures given by the inventor in the various towns of the United States during the last three years drew the attention of educationists to the subject ; and mainly through the exertions of the late Hon. Dexter S. King, it was resolved that the system should be experimented with in the Boston school for deaf-mutes. The committee of that school invited me to visit Boston for the purpose of instructing the teachers in the use of the symbols. During the month of April, 1871, all the teachers were close students of the system. By the 1st of May, they had acquired sufficient knowledge of the symbols to conduct experiments under my superintendence ; and by the 1st of June I was enabled to relinquish the conduct of the experiment into the hands of Miss Fuller, the principal of the school.

On the 13th of June, a public exhibition was given of the condition of the school, and it was shown that the very youngest children had comprehended the meaning of the symbols. Taking the school as a whole, it was found that, during the month of May, over three hundred English sounds, which the pupils had formerly failed to utter by imitation, had been obtained by means of Visible Speech. Class illustration was given of the pronunciation of syllables with differences of accent and quantity, and individual illustration of the *perfect utterance* of words and sentences. Adult deaf-mutes were present who had acquired all the sounds of the English language in ten lessons, and who could articulate a large number of words with absolute correctness. One pupil of the school, to whom special instructions had been given in the principles of elocution, read Longfellow's "Psalm of Life," from elocutionary marks, with natural and expressive inflections of the voice.

The following letters have recently been received concerning the experiment in the Boston school :

From the Committee of the Boston School for Deaf-Mutes.

BOSTON, Nov. 1, 1871.

A. GRAHAM BELL, Esq.:

DEAR SIR: The system of Visible Speech, invented by your father, and so successfully introduced by you into the Boston school for deaf-mutes, has given the teachers an instrument of incalculable value in teaching deaf-mutes (congenital as well as others) to articulate clearly and correctly.

It has been heartily adopted as the system of the school, and the surprising results exhibited by the pupils at the close of your brief course of instruction are increasingly apparent every day.

Trusting you may be as successful in your future labors as in those we have witnessed, we remain, very cordially, your friends,

IRA ALLEN, *Chairman.*
GEO. F. BIGELOW.*From the Principal of the Boston School for Deaf-Mutes.*SCHOOL FOR DEAF-MUTES,
BOSTON, Nov. 4, 1871.

A. GRAHAM BELL, Esq.:

DEAR SIR: In compliance with your request, I am happy to give you my opinion regarding the value of Visible Speech in teaching articulation to deaf-mutes.

I can say, with confidence, that I have found it of the greatest assistance. The consonants *b*, *d*, and *g*, which are the most difficult to obtain by imitation, are, by means of the symbols, produced with great ease and accuracy; and the consonant combinations, such as *ct*, *ks*, *nd*, etc., which were often very faulty, are, by this system, acquired perfectly.

In teaching vowels it is of especial value. The Visible Speech symbols make the child conscious of the correct positions of the mouth for producing these sounds. Hitherto such elements have been our greatest difficulties. I have been able to correct in several cases very imperfect vowel sounds which had baffled all attempts under the old system of imitation.

Although I have had but little experience in the use of Visible Speech, I am quite convinced that if we had begun our work with a full knowledge of this system, we should have been spared a great amount of difficult and often discouraging labor, and produced much better results.

Yours, respectfully,

SARAH FULLER.

*From the Superintendent of Public Schools in Boston.*CITY OF BOSTON, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SUPERINTENDENT'S OFFICE, CITY HALL, October 7, 1871.

A. GRAHAM BELL, Esq.:

MY DEAR SIR: I congratulate you most cordially on the success of your experiment in the application of the science of Visible Speech, which was invented and developed by your father, to the

instruction of the pupils in our Boston deaf-mute school. Heretofore, instruction of deaf-mutes in artificial articulation has been wholly imitative and empirical, and although the system is extensively employed, it has produced useful results only at the expense of incredible labor and patience on the part of both teachers and pupils.

You have, by your experiment in our school, proved the practicability of producing in congenital deaf-mutes *perfect* articulation, with vastly less labor than has been required to produce only imperfect articulation.

What is still more wonderful, if possible, you have succeeded in enabling deaf-mute pupils to modulate the voice, by giving a higher and lower pitch, and the upward and downward and circumflex inflections.

What you have done in the short time you have been engaged in our school has convinced me that the science of Visible Speech is to become a powerful and an indispensable instrumentality in the instruction of deaf-mutes.

I know of no greater step of progress, in this speciality of education, than this you have introduced, since the days of the Abbé de l'Epée and Samuel Heinicke.

Very truly, yours,

JOHN D. PHILBRICK.

I am at present engaged in conducting experiments with Visible Speech privately in Boston. An account of the results obtained will be presented to the readers of the *Annals* in due time.

The system is now undergoing experiment in the Northampton Institution for Deaf-Mutes, and it will be introduced into the American Asylum, Hartford, in May, 1872.

POPULAR ERRORS CONCERNING THE FUNCTIONS OF THE NEW ALPHABET.

I have attempted, in the preceding pages, to convey an idea of the nature and uses of Visible Speech ; to give an outline of the history of the invention, and to state the results of its introduction into the Boston school.

I shall now supplement this by a brief description of the symbols themselves, the mode of communicating them to deaf-mutes, and the plan of instruction so far as developed. But before doing this, I think it right to correct any misapprehensions that may arise concerning the functions of the new alphabet.

1st. In regard to general applications.

There is no intention of superseding existing alphabets by the new letters. The system must, therefore, not be confounded with any phonetic movement, such as that at present existing in England. It is intended solely for international and scientific purposes, and as a key to other alphabets. In the words of Prof. de Morgan, it forms “*a sound-bridge from language to language, from no speech to speech.*”

2d. In its application to deaf-mutes.

(a.) The system does not interfere with any existing plan of education. *Visible Speech* takes *no part* in the contest between articulation, on the one hand, and signs and manual alphabets on the other. In presenting his system for adoption, all that the inventor means to say is this: “Here is a means by which you can obtain perfect articulation from deaf-mutes; *make what use of it you choose.*” He places the *tool* in the hands of teachers, with general directions how to use it.

(b.) *Visible Speech* is not *necessarily* associated with lip-reading. There is no doubt that, in schools where lip-reading is employed, the symbols will materially assist the pupils by showing them *what to look for* in the mouths of hearing persons, but this is apart from its greater sphere of usefulness as a means of communicating articulation.

(c.) *Visible Speech* does not profess to teach the deaf to *modulate their voices*; it deals with articulation pure and simple.

There is no doubt that, by means of the symbols, the quality or “timbre” of the voice may be influenced; and future experiments will show how far a harsh and disagreeable voice may be made soft and pleasing by means of them.

Deaf-mutes may be taught to modulate their voices, and to read with expression, by means of an (at present) unpublished development of *Visible Speech*, which aims at representing pictorially the changes of the voice in regard to force, duration, and pitch. This system consti-

tutes an elocutionary, and, in its fullest development, a musical notation, accomplishing for the throat what Visible Speech does for the mouth.

We all know that our deaf-mute pupils give on the play-ground and elsewhere *perfectly natural inflections*. They laugh and cry like other children. The problem is to make them *conscious* of the movements of their voices. Experiments in the Boston school have proved that this can be done.

MODE OF COMMUNICATING VISIBLE SPEECH TO DEAF-MUTES.

The elementary symbols are pictorial of parts of the mouth and of their modes of action. As the various organs of speech are disposed in forming any particular sound, the corresponding symbols are put together to build up a compound character indicative of the position of the mouth. This compound character most truly represents the sound intended, because no person can put his mouth into the position indicated without producing it.

The symbols have been successfully explained to deaf-mutes in the following manner : The outline of a face turned toward the right is drawn upon the blackboard, (see illustration,) and a representation of the inside of the mouth is added. The pupil's attention is directed to the various parts of the diagram, and he shows his appreciation by touching the corresponding portions of his own face or mouth. When the teacher points to the arrow-head, a motion of the hand is made to suggest that it means "air coming out of the mouth."

Those portions of the face represented in the illustration by dotted lines are then erased from the board, and attention is directed to the broken remains of the diagram. When the teacher points to the fragmentary nose, lip, or tongue, etc., the pupil touches his own nose, lip, or tongue.

It will be observed that these disjointed portions of the diagram are the *Visible Speech symbols for the corresponding parts of the mouth*. The symbol for "lip" is the outline

ILLUSTRATIONS or VISIBLE SPEECH.

Fig. 1

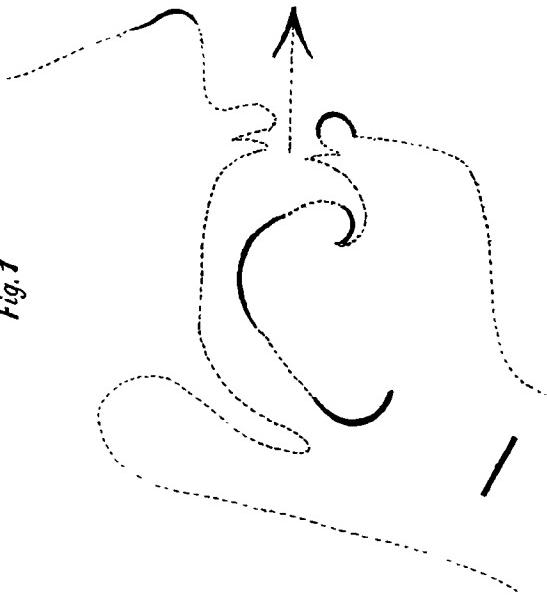


Fig. 2.

C	C	E	G	E	C	E	G	E
C	E	Q	E	D	E	C	E	C
E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
C	I							

Fig. 4.

CH	CH (ger.)	C	W	C	M	C	W	C
Hawking Noise.		Elle		Elle	NG	J	Pole	J
KCH (Germ.)						Paul		Ah!

Fig. 3.

D	B	E	
C	V	O	
C	E	I	E

of a lip ; that for the point of the tongue its picture, and so with other parts.

The sign for the lip is used for every sound formed by the lips ; so with the point of the tongue, the top or "front" of the tongue, and the back of the tongue.

The sign for the throat represents a mere chink or slit in the throat, and is pictorial of the vocalizing condition of the glottis. It therefore means "voice."

The sign for the nose is, in reality, pictorial of the uvula, the pendulous extremity of the soft palate. When the soft palate is depressed, the breath passes up behind it and escapes through the nostrils. When it is raised, the communication between nose and mouth is cut off. Hence the application of a symbol originally pictorial of the soft palate to the nose. It means "air passing through the nostrils."

But to return to our pupil. He knows nothing of the deep meaning underlying these symbols. To him the strange lines upon the board are only the remains of a picture. Filling up the gaps, in imagination he recognizes the crooked line as a portion of the nose, the curves as so many parts of the mouth, and the straight line as the throat.

The next step is to isolate the symbols, so that our deaf-mute shall recognize them independently of their position in the diagram. They are accordingly written in one line below the fragmentary picture. (See fig. 2)

The crooked character is shown, by reference to the face above, to be the same as the nose ; the straight line, the throat ; and the curves, the various parts of the mouth.

The elementary forms are then built up into more complex shapes.

The second line illustrates the junction of the curves with the straight line.

In the first symbol the curve is seen to be the under lip, and the straight line the throat. The name of the

symbol is "lip-voice." The child describes it by pointing to his lip and then to his throat.

The third line shows the union of the nose sign with the various curves; and the fourth exhibits a triple combination, viz: a part of the mouth, with nose and voice signs added.

A character indicating a peculiar position of the vocal organs is next introduced. Observe the first symbol in the fifth line. The space enclosed by the curve is symbolically *shut in* by a line drawn across the ends.

Thus a straight line (made thin to distinguish it from "voice") is called "shut." The idea is conveyed by forcibly closing a book before the eyes of the pupil. Whenever he names the sign he imitates this motion.

The fifth line exhibits the union of this symbol with the various curves. The first character in the line, named "lip-shut," is described by touching the under lip, and then imitating with the hands the closing of a book. Here, for the first time, the idea of the directive nature of the symbols begins to dawn upon the deaf-mute. In conducting classes I have invariably found that when this point has been reached, at least one of the pupils would illustrate the symbol by *shutting his lips*.

The characters in the sixth line are composed of a curve and the signs "shut, voice."

Those in the seventh contain a curve and "shut, nose;" and the symbols in the eighth line are analyzed into a curve and "shut, voice, nose."

The broken outline of the face, which has been retained as an assistance to the memory, is now dispensed with, and the pupil is required to describe all the symbols again.

For the convenience of the reader, I give below the names of the symbols, in a tabular form, using the initial letters of the words Shut, Voice, Nose, Lip, Point, Front, Back :

(Key to Fig. 2.)			
N	Y	L	P F B
		LV	PV FV BV
		LN	PN FN BN
		LVN	PVN FVN BVN
		LS	PS FS BS
		LSV	PSV FSV BSV
		LSN	PSN FSN BSN
		LSVN	PSVN FSVN BSVN.

It will be observed that, though at the first lesson thirty-four characters have been introduced, the memory is burdened with only four forms, viz: a curve, (turned in different directions,) a crooked line, a thick, straight line, and a thin one.

Though the sounds of speech may be *infinite* in variety, they are all formed by a limited number of organs; and they can all be represented by the combinations of ten elementary symbols.

The name of a sound-symbol is in reality a command *to do something with the mouth.*

Take, for example, the first character in the eighth line, (see illustration,) "lip, shut, voice, nose." This is, in effect, a direction to shut the lips and pass the voice through the nose. In explaining this symbol to a deaf-mute, one of his hands is placed upon the teacher's throat, and the other against the nose. If, then, the teacher makes the sound of the letter M, the pupil *sees* that the lips are shut, and *feels* a vibration in the throat and nose.

The symbols in fig. 3 represent the sounds of the following letters as taught to the children in the Boston school:

P	B	M
T	D	N
K	G	NG.

All one can say concerning the Roman letters is, that P is P, B B, etc. But the symbols tell us that P is formed by shutting the lips, and then making a puff of air, while for B, the lips are to be shut while the voice is sounded, and then a puff of voice is to be given, etc.

The characters exhibit to the eye all the relations that

the sounds themselves do to the ear ; and the organic relations are just as clearly shown :

As P is to B, so is T to D, and K to G.
 As B is to M, so is D to N, and G to NG.
 As P is to T, so is B to D, and M to N.
 As P is to K, so is B to G, and M to NG,
 etc., etc.

P, B, and M have the “lip” and “shut” signs in common ; and in sounding all, the lips are shut.

T, D, N, agree in shutting off the breath by means of the point of the tongue, and K, G, NG, in the closing action being performed by the back of the tongue.

Furthermore, the sounds P, T, K, (represented by the same symbol turned in different directions,) are made by the same organic action performed at different parts of the mouth ; so with B, D, G, and M, N, NG.

When a deaf-mute has thoroughly mastered the meaning of the symbols, he is required to sound one of the characters ; that is, the attempt is to be made to do with the mouth what the symbol directs.

The pupil, having little or no control over the movements of the vocal organs, will probably make a very different sound from that intended ; but the first point gained is, that he makes a noise of some kind. Whatever it happens to be—whether a cough, or a growl, or a sneeze (!)—it can be written symbolically. From this sound as a starting-point, others can be developed in every direction, until all the English elements have been obtained.

I shall illustrate by a case that has actually occurred.

A middle-aged deaf-mute, a resident of Boston, was studying the symbols with me.

I directed his attention to the vibration of my throat in sounding voice. He attempted to imitate this by a peculiar hawking noise—somewhat as if he were coughing up phlegm.

After repeating the sound several times, he analyzed my representation of it, (see fig. 4,) and thus became con-

scious of what his mouth was doing. In forming this sound the tongue is first put back so as to shut off the air from the mouth. The breath is then forced out between the tongue and soft palate in such a way as to set the uvula vibrating.

Upon presenting the symbols to him, minus the "trill" or shake, he made the sound gently, and without vibrating the uvula. What he gave was in reality an English element, (K,) followed by the German sound of *ch*.

The next point to be attained was to separate these elements, so as to have the English sound on one side, and the foreign one on the other. The first element of his sound was accordingly written with the sign for a puff of breath after it. He gave at once the letter K. The German *ch* was also obtained at sight of its symbol.

The attempt to pronounce K with voice produced G; and NG resulted from passing the voice through the nose.

By sounding the German *ch* with the lips nearly closed the English WH was obtained. W was given by adding voice. This sound may be considered, for all practical purposes, identical with the vowel *oo* in "pool." From this vowel five others were obtained by merely opening the mouth very gradually.

Thus from the original hawking noise eleven English sounds were developed by the directive power of the symbols.

This method of leading from one sound to another renders the acquisition of the English elements a matter of absolute certainty; but it is inapplicable to very young children. In all cases, however, mechanical assistance will accomplish what the intellect of the child is unable to do. The symbols inform the teacher of the correct position of the organs in producing any sound. By the exercise of a little ingenuity the child's tongue can be pushed into the required position by means of a pencil or pen-holder.

Mechanical assistance has been found to be so absolutely

necessary that a manipulator of a convenient shape has been constructed of ivory.

Suppose we fail to obtain K from a child ; a sound of *similar formation, but further forward in the mouth,* may be experimented upon. We shall presume our pupil can pronounce T. In T, the shutting action is performed by the point of the tongue ; in K, by the back. (See fig. 3.)

If the teacher holds the manipulator so as to prevent any portion of the tongue from rising *except the back,* the attempt on the part of the pupil to say T will produce K. The manipulator is at once placed in the hands of the pupil himself, and the experiment is repeated. A mirror held before his face shows him the position of his tongue. It invariably follows that after a few attempts the child is enabled to pronounce the sound without any assistance whatever.

A plan for the development of sounds by means of the manipulator has been devised. It may be interesting to know that twenty-six English elements can be *forced* from the one sound TH.

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.

In teaching articulation a radical difference must be made at the outset between the semi-mute and the deaf-mute proper. The former has already *learned to talk*—the latter has everything to learn.

Our object should be to *keep up the knowledge* of spoken language possessed by the semi-mute, and to teach him the pronunciation of new words. This can be accomplished by the symbols of Visible Speech ; and his voice may be prevented from becoming monotonous by the use of the allied elocutionary notation.

But the congenital deaf-mute (who may be taken as the type of the other class) has had no practice in the use of his vocal organs ; and his mouth is at first incapable of using the language of hearing persons. The instrument of speech must be mastered like any other instrument—*by slow degrees.*

Hearing children (being guided only by imitation) require five or six years' practice in order to talk correctly, and even then it is astonishing how many grow up with defective articulation.

To expect the congenital deaf-mute to talk the moment he has mastered the elements of speech would be as unreasonable as to expect a child to play one of Beethoven's sonatas when he only knew the notes of his piano. He must have long and patient practice of scales and exercises, in order to obtain command over his instrument; he must have oral gymnastics, as a preparation for speech.

Should any one try the experiment of teaching a novice in music to play a sonata correctly, we may predict the result. Rapid passages would be slurred over, and many false notes be given.

The difficulties of execution would cause the performance to appear, at best, labored and mechanical, and the pupil would probably be disheartened. Should there be any approach toward correct playing, it could only be made through indomitable perseverance on the part of both teacher and pupil.

Analogy reveals the cause of the only partial success that has hitherto attended the efforts to teach articulation to the congenital deaf-mute. The attempt to make him utter words and sentences *from the very outset of his education* can only be productive of imperfect articulation. It will be difficult, and in many cases impossible, to correct afterwards the defects engendered by too great anxiety for progress on the part of his teacher.

The mouth must be educated to produce sounds before the difficulties of spoken language can be successfully grappled with. By means of the symbols the elementary sounds may be combined in all sorts of ways to form *senseless compounds* analogous to syllables, words, and sentences. These should be uttered at first very slowly; then, by degrees, faster and faster, until the power of correct and rapid utterance has been attained. Then, and

not till then, will it be safe to introduce articulation with sense attached.

I have suggested the following plan of instruction, which is suited to the capability of the very youngest beginner.

The imitative faculty of the child should be educated to the utmost, by causing him to copy the motions of the teacher's mouth. Direct him to make his tongue hard or soft, round or spread out flat; let him move it backward and forward, up and down, or in any way the fancy of the teacher may dictate.

English sounds may be obtained by imitation, and associated arbitrarily with their symbols.

The teacher should be careful not to spend too much time in laborious and disheartening efforts to obtain by imitation what will be more easily and certainly acquired afterwards. What is wanted is a mere foundation to work upon in the future. A skilful teacher will not confine himself to English elements, but will take whatever sound the child happens to make, and associate *that* with its correct symbol.

The sounds obtained are to be practised in easy monosyllabic combinations, until they can be certainly discriminated.

When the child's attention is capable of being fixed, the meaning of the Visible Speech symbols may be explained to him. After this, he must *describe* as well as *sound* the elements mastered. No difficulty will be found with children of six or seven years of age.

New sounds should next be developed by appealing to the mind through the analogies of the symbols, and by forcing the tongue into new positions by means of the manipulator. Thus the mind, the eye, and the sense of touch in the pupil co-operate with the mechanical skill of the teacher to produce sure and certain results.

No articulation, however perfect, will be *agreeable* unless strict attention is paid to the accent and quantity of syllables, and to the modulation of the voice. I have there-

fore recommended that the study of rhythm, and the cultivation of the voice, should be added as *separate branches of education*, as soon as possible.

It is apart from my present subject to enter into a description of the notation for rhythm and modulation. Suffice it to say that a rhythmical exercise may be written upon the board. The children are required, at first, to clap their hands, or tap their slates, or make some other visible motion, *in concert*, while marching round the room. The rhythmical repetition of a syllable can then be substituted for the clapping of the hands, the pupils marching as before. Finally, the marching is relinquished, and the teacher beats time with his hand instead. In this way an appreciation of rhythm is developed before applying it to words. Classes can be exercised with regular rhythm, as it occurs in poetry ; and individuals, with the irregular rhythm of prose.

In regard to the modulations of the voice, all deaf-mutes can be trained to recognize at least five indefinite pitches. These may be called, "very high, high, medium, low, very low." By gliding from one to another, inflections can be produced. When these have once been obtained, we may seek to associate them with *feelings*.

Suppose the word "farm" to be uttered with a rising inflection suggestive of interrogation. Let the teacher *look interrogatively*. The pupil will unconsciously imbibe the idea that the word "farm," with such a rise of the voice, is equivalent to the sentence, "Is it a farm?" So with other inflections. Modulations of the voice, expressive of surprise, sorrow, anger, etc., should have their meanings visibly apparent in the face of the teacher.

I look forward with confidence to the time when deaf articulators will be taught the principles of elocution, so as to be enabled to read and speak with expression.

The following is a brief recapitulation of the plan of instruction :

- I. 1. Educate the imitative faculty.
2. Obtain sounds by imitation, and associate them arbitrarily with their symbols.

- II. 1. Understand the symbols of Visible Speech, and describe the sounds obtained by imitation.
- 2. Utter easy monosyllables, formed from the sounds obtained by imitation.
- 3. Commence the study of rhythmical motions.
- 4. Obtain differences of pitch.
- III. 1. Develop the remainder of the English alphabet from the sounds obtained by imitation.
- 2. Give oral gymnastics, with monosyllabic combinations of all the sounds perfectly uttered.
- 3. Repeat a syllable rhythmically.
- 4. Glide from pitch to pitch, so as to obtain as great a variety of inflections as possible.
- IV. 1. Practice oral gymnastics with polysyllabic combinations, giving differences of accent and quantity.
- 2. Repeat a monosyllable, with differences of accent and quantity, and with inflections of the voice.
- V. 1. Utter polysyllables containing difficult combinations of consonants.
- 2. Give polysyllabic combinations analogous to sentences, attending to accent, quantity, and to the movements of the voice.
- 3. Teach the spoken names of familiar objects. Seek merely to form a vocabulary.
- 4. Repeat words with different inflections, so as to convey an idea of the expressiveness of the various tones.
- VI. Articulate sentences with fluency and distinctness, attending to accent, quantity, and to the inflections of the voice.

Space has not permitted me to give more than a mere idea of the nature of the symbols of Visible Speech. For further particulars the reader is referred to the Inaugural Edition of the system.*

* This may be obtained from Messrs. Lee & Shepard, publishers, Boston.

In conclusion, I should like to draw attention to the fact that Visible Speech can be explained by means of diagrams, so that foreign teachers of the deaf and dumb can reap the advantages of the system without the necessity of studying our language.

A P P E N D I X.

This appendix is added in order to bring the history of the application of Visible Speech to the instruction of deaf-mutes up to the end of 1871.

Reference was made at page 8 to private experiments in Boston, and to the introduction of the system into the Clarke Institution.

The objects of the experiments in Boston were—

1st. To test how far the mouths and voices of deaf-mutes could be educated by means of Visible Speech, and the allied elocutionary notation ; and—

2d. To discover experimentally the best mode of teaching the system.

The committee of the Boston Day School kindly granted the use of their rooms for these experiments.

RESULTS OF THE BOSTON EXPERIMENTS.

1st. In three months a congenital deaf-mute not only acquired all the English elements that had been defective after four years' instruction by imitation, but could pronounce foreign sounds at sight of their symbols.

This pupil also learned to inflect the voice, sustain it on one level, or vary its timbre at will.

She is perfectly conscious of every movement in her throat, and even seems to recognize (in her own voice) certain musical intervals.

2d. A semi-mute acquired a knowledge of elocutionary principles, and not only learned to modulate the voice, but evidently *felt* the expressiveness of the inflections.

In this case there is a most decided perception of relative pitch.

The fact that persons possessing no sense of hearing can obtain command over the movements of the voice, seems so extraordinary that, for the satisfaction of the incredulous, the pupils above referred to were examined by a prominent aurist, whose testimony will be found at page 30.

3d. Another pupil, who became deaf at eighteen months old, but who has a slight sense of hearing in one ear, can now give natural expression to her utterance, and even sing a simple air.

4th. The experiments give good ground for the conclusion that Visible Speech will enable adult deaf-mutes to articulate intelligibly.

The symbols appeal so directly to the *mind*, that more rapid progress is made by adults than by children in mastering the elements.

The most unpromising of the pupils experimented on—unpromising from the fact that he had nearly reached middle age—acquired all the English elements in twelve lessons ; and his voice, which was at first extremely disagreeable, became much improved. In other cases of younger pupils, the exercises produced a perfectly natural quality of voice.

NOTES ON INDIVIDUAL CASES.

CASE I. The congenital deaf-mute referred to above is Miss Theresa B. Dudley, of Northampton, Mass. She studied articulation under Miss Rogers, the principal of the Clarke Institution.

On the 6th of September the condition of Miss Dudley's articulation was witnessed by the following gentlemen : Hon. J. D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools, Boston ; Hon. — White, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education ; Dr. Ira Allen, Chairman of the Committee on the Boston School for Deaf-Mutes ; Dr. G. F. Bigelow, member of that committee.

This examination was requested—

1st. That Miss Rogers might have full credit for the very wonderful work she had accomplished ; and—

2d. That these gentlemen might be the better able to appreciate the improvement justly due to Visible Speech.

Attention was directed to the following points :

1st. *That a few of the elementary sounds were defective.*

The majority of the consonants were correct, and the vowels, though recognizable, were mere approximations toward the true sounds.

The most faulty consonants were *w*, *wh*, *r*, *l*; and the vowels chiefly defective, those in the words *pool*, *pull*, *pole*, *Paul*, *poll*, and the vowel ē.

2d. *All double consonants were defective*, such as *ts*, *j*, *ch*, *ks*, &c.

3d. *It was difficult for strangers to understand her conversation, and almost impossible for them to follow her reading.*

4th. *The voice was under no sort of control, and it was not pleasing in quality.*

The present condition of Miss Dudley's articulation may be noted :

- 1st. *All the elementary sounds are correct.*
- 2d. *All the double consonants are correct.*
- 3d. *Miss Dudley can read distinctly and intelligibly from the symbols of Visible Speech, but with extreme slowness.*

The faulty habits of speech already formed place great difficulties in the way of the attainment of fluent utterance, but there can be no doubt that these will be surmounted by the patient practice of oral gymnastics.

- 4th. *The voice has been brought under control.*

The following extracts from Miss Dudley's note-book will be read with interest :

November 21.

Teacher. "Tell me what you feel when you sound do, mi, sol ; and when you give the rising and falling inflections."

Pupil. "I think I can feel the inflections, but I often try to get the right one in vain sometimes. If I practise them *often*, I think I may be able to remember how to feel their sounds, and may get them instantly."

T. "In sounding do, mi, sol, can you feel when your voice is right and when it is wrong?"

P. "I will try to see if I succeed in doing so after you show me their sounds, so I can tell whether it is right or not by feeling." (The attempt was made about half-a-dozen times.) "Now you can see that I can say the right pitches by feeling, although I sometimes fail to get a right one, though I can feel it."

T. "But I want to know *what* you feel?"

P. "I cannot tell you. I think I cannot explain it at all."

T. "Where do you feel the pitches? In your ears?"

P. "No"

T. "In your head, or throat, or chest?"

P. "I have *different* feelings."

T. "Have you a different feeling for do, mi, sol?"

P. "Yes."

T. "Try and think what the difference is."

P. "I cannot explain it, because I do not know how. If you were *deaf*, perhaps you might find it difficult to explain it when a teacher asked you."

November 24.

Teacher. "When I say 'farm' with a rising inflection, you can see by my face that I am *asking you a question*. In the sign-language, the meaning is often expressed in the face. In spoken language, the meaning can be conveyed by the voice."

Pupil. "I understand the signs of a voice very well. 'Well,' " (a rising inflection was given.) "My voice said, 'Are you well?' and then 'Well,' " (a falling inflection.) "My voice said 'I am well,' so that you might be positive that I really understood what

you said about the signs. Imagine that I am talking to somebody : 'I am *going* to Boston ;' and if the same person finds that I *have* not gone yet, he may say '*Are* you going to Boston ?'" (A rise in the voice was indicated.)

CASE II. The semi-mute referred to above is Miss Alice C. Jennings, of Auburndale, Mass.

In consequence of partial paralysis of the vocal organs, the articulation of this young lady was very defective. The muscles of the weak side have already been much strengthened by the practise of oral gymnastics, and the speech improved. All the elementary sounds are now correct with the exception of the vowel e. The following is an uncorrected elocutionary exercise by Miss Jennings. The inflections represented are necessarily omitted. They were, however, perfectly appropriate.

Elocutionary Exercise.

"In-every-period-of-life the-acquisition-of-knowledge
is-one-of-the-most-PLEASING-EMPLOYMENTS of - the - human - mind.
But in-youth there - are - circumstances which-make-it productive-of-HIGHER-ENJOYMENT.

"It-is-THEN that everything - bas-the-charm-of-novelty ;
that *curiosity-and-fancy* are - *awake* ; and - that the - heart-
SWELLS with-anticipations of-future-eminence-and-utility.
Even in-those-lower-branches of-instruction which-we-call
mere-ACCOMPLISHMENTS there-is-something always-pleasing
to-the-young."

The following are extracts from Miss Jennings' notebook :

November 20.

Miss Jennings says :

"I think I feel the expressiveness of the inflection I am giving, and can *tell* when I do not give it correctly. But I cannot always command the feeling, although the mere giving of the inflection seems almost to bring feeling with it."

November 22.

Teacher. "Can you feel a difference between do, mi, sol, do ?"

Pupil. "I think so ; but I cannot explain what the feeling is, or why it affects me as it does. I have a different feeling for each note."

T. "1st. Do you feel the sounds in your ears ?

"2d. Do you feel them in different *places* ?

"3d. Do you feel a motion in the throat ?

"4th. Do you think your perception a mental or a physical sensation ?

Try and explain as well as you can."

P. "1st. I do *not* feel them in my ears.

"2d. I feel the sounds in different places, but most forcibly in my *throat*.

"3d. I feel a *vibration* in my throat—sometimes very rapid.

"4th. I should say the perception was more of a *mental* than a physical one. It is just the same with music.* There is something *within* which always responds to the outward harmony—but *what it is*, or *how it is*, I cannot explain."

PUBLIC RECOGNITION OF THE SUCCESS OF THE BOSTON EXPERIMENTS.

At an exhibition given in Pemberton Square, the 29th of November, the company assembled appointed a committee to report the perfect success of the system of Visible Speech.

The report of the committee appeared in the *Boston Daily Advertiser* on the 6th of December, and is as follows:

On Wednesday last, an examination took place in the school for deaf-mutes at 11 Pemberton square, of several pupils, deaf and dumb, who had been for three months under the instruction of Mr. A. Graham Bell. The effects produced by this instruction are in the highest degree wonderful; indeed, almost miraculous. Several girls have been taught to utter distinctly all the sounds of the language; and one of them pronounced accurately words offered by gentlemen present, from a European and from an Oriental language, containing strange sounds not belonging to our language. Another, Miss Flagg, recited in a sweet and natural manner, with all the inflections and modulations that a well-taught hearing-girl could have given, a comic quarrel between a husband and wife about "Is it a thrush or a starling?"

At the end of the examination, Hon. Mr. Philbrick, superintendent of the Boston schools, was requested by a unanimous vote to take measures to procure a hall sufficiently large to accommodate a much larger audience, and to arrange for a future meeting, and another committee was chosen to report the perfect success of Mr. Bell's methods, and to invite all persons, especially those interested in the marvellous powers of the human voice, and those who wish to see for themselves the original scientific methods by which he can bestow upon those from whom it has been withheld the power of communicating their thoughts and feelings by the use of the human voice divine; that every mother who has never heard her child speak may hope to hear it in a pleasant, natural voice.

Mr. Bell is the son of the gentleman in London, Professor A. Melville Bell, who first, by unwearyed experiments on the organs of

* This young lady has been taught to play the piano, and she takes pleasure in her own playing.

speech, invented what he calls "Visible Speech," an invention which promises to give complete success to the art of teaching the deaf and dumb to speak. Mr. Bell began by giving a rapid account of the invention, and exhibited on the black-board the characters of symbols devised, which are an imitation of the parts of the organs of speech used in the utterance of the several sounds. He then stated that the object of the experiments he had been making during the last three months has been to test the possibility of educating the mouths and voices of deaf-mutes. He introduced to us two young ladies who had during that time been under his instruction, Miss Alice C. Jennings, daughter of the Rev. W. Jennings, of Auburndale, and Miss Theresa Dudley, daughter of the Hon. L. J. Dudley, of Northampton, and asked special attention to the latter, who is a congenital mute. She had been educated at home, at the Institution at Hartford, Conn., and for four years under Miss Rogers, principal of the Northampton Institution, where she had been using her vocal organs.

In September, Superintendent Philbrick, Secretary White, Dr. Ira Allen, chairman of the Boston school for mutes, and several other gentlemen, had examined the condition of Miss Dudley's articulation, that Miss Rogers might have full credit for the very wonderful work she had accomplished, and that the improvement due to the principles of "Visible Speech" might be justly appreciated. The defects had been shown to be in sounds of *o*, the consonants *w*, *r*, *l*, and in all the double consonants; indistinctness and difficulty of understanding her conversation or reading.

Mr. Bell went on to say :

"Miss Dudley has been under my instruction for three months. The improvement manifest may be emphatically summed up in the one word, 'power.' She has obtained power over the instrument of speech—such power that she can produce the elementary sounds of foreign languages as well as those of English, by merely studying their symbols; that she can vary her voice in *quality* as well as pitch, sustain it on one level, or inflect it at will, and that she can appreciate certain musical intervals.

"I have devoted principal attention to Miss Dudley's articulation. In Miss Jennings' case I have aimed at the cultivation of the voice, and the communication of elocutionary principles. Miss Dudley varies her voice entirely *mechanically*, but Miss Jennings can now associate a *feeling* with every inflection. The latter also possesses the mysterious power of appreciating *relative pitch*. Both of these young ladies are apparently *totally deaf*."

Mr. Bell then wrote on the board, in the symbols of "Visible Speech," sentences in English, in German, and in French, and some words in the Zulu language, containing Hottentot clicks never heard in our speech, all of which Miss Dudley read slowly, but with surprising correctness, and gave the clicks in a way which nobody else present could imitate. She afterwards read, from her symbols of "Visible Speech," the Lord's Prayer, slowly, but very distinctly, with almost faultless articulation, and with apparently deep feeling.

Mr. Bell said that it will require long and patient practice of oral gymnastics before she is able to speak fluently; but he showed enough to prove that the end he is aiming at, *perfect and pleasing articulation*, is certain.

GEORGE B. EMERSON,
JOHN D. PHILBRICK,
LEWIS B. MUNROE,
J. W. CHURCHILL,
Committee.

VISIBLE SPEECH IN THE CLARKE INSTITUTION.

Many persons, while satisfied with the results obtained, have expressed doubts whether the same could be produced by others. They ask, "Is success due to the teacher, or to the system?"

Experiments show that it is chiefly owing to the *system*. Visible Speech, in the hands of teachers very imperfectly acquainted with its capabilities, has produced similar results to those exhibited in Boston.

The following note has been received from the chairman of the school committee of the Clarke Institution:

NORTHAMPTON, MASS.,
January 12, 1872.

A. GRAHAM BELL, Esq.:

DEAR SIR: Such elements of your system as you could communicate in a few hours have been used with the class of 1871 in the Clarke Institution.

Better results have been attained in three months than ever before in a much longer period of time—and in the matter of tone, compass, modulation, and inflection of the voice, results which had not previously been attained at all.

Yours, truly,

L. J. DUDLEY.

VISIBLE SPEECH IN THE NATIONAL DEAF-MUTE COLLEGE.

At the National College for Deaf-Mutes, Washington, D. C., Professor Chickering has been using the system.

His testimony is rendered doubly valuable from the fact that Articulation is his special department, and that he gained his knowledge of Visible Speech simply by witnessing the progress of a class of adult deaf-mutes in Boston.

WASHINGTON, D. C.,
January 17, 1872.

A. GRAHAM BELL, Esq.:

DEAR SIR: It affords me pleasure to answer your queries respecting my experiments with the system of Visible Speech.

Since the commencement of our academic year, in October, I have made use of it in my classes, with the most gratifying results.

While it has not power to equalize the great natural differences (existing in deaf-mutes as in others) in ability to acquire accuracy in the use of the vocal organs, it does greatly facilitate the work, both of instruction and acquisition, by furnishing a means of communication between teacher and pupil, ready and accurate.

In the case of the congenital deaf-mute, it places before him something definite, precise, appreciable, which he can attempt with good hope of success.

While, for the semi-mute, it furnishes a means alike of attaining a correct pronunciation, and (hardly less important practically) of correcting mistakes and previous bad habits.

The liquids and the palatals, formerly very troublesome, are rendered easy of acquisition. What may be its ultimate results in increasing the percentage of deaf-mutes for whom articulation shall become an easy and pleasant method of communicating ideas and acquiring knowledge, it is as yet too soon to attempt to predict.

But I am convinced that it is altogether the most valuable contribution thus far made to this department of deaf-mute education.

I remain, yours, very truly,

J. W. CHICKERING.

THE FUTURE OF VISIBLE SPEECH.

Inquiries have recently been received concerning the employment of the system in the following institutions for deaf-mutes : New York Institution ; Protestant Institution, Montreal ; Ontario Institution, Belleville ; Illinois Institution, Jacksonville.

There is no longer any need to "experiment" in order to find out how far Visible Speech will be of use to the deaf and dumb. It has been satisfactorily *proved* that by its means it is possible to communicate *perfect articulation, even to the congenitally deaf.*

An establishment for the dissemination of the system will be founded in Boston in the autumn of the present year.

In order to afford practical exemplification of the methods of Visible Speech, a private school for deaf-mutes will be opened, and another for hearing children with defects of speech. Suitable teachers will be employed to carry on the education of these pupils.

Letters of inquiry may be addressed to the care of the principal of the School for Deaf-Mutes, 11 Pemberton square, Boston, Mass.

A. GRAHAM BELL.

BRANTFORD, ONTARIO,

February 1, 1872.

MEDICAL REPORT,

BY

DR. CLARENCE J. BLAKE, *Lecturer on Otology in Harvard University, and Aural Surgeon to the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary.*

CASE 1.—*Miss Jennings*, aged 21 years, deaf-mute, well developed, and in good general health.

History.—At eight years of age had a severe attack of scarlet fever, the inflammation of the mucous membrane of the pharynx and fauces being a marked symptom.

One week after the appearance of the rash and following symptoms, which indicated inflammation of the middle ear, a thick, purulent discharge occurred from both ears; this discharge continued for three months and then ceased.

Three days after the commencement of the discharge the hearing became entirely lost, and has not since returned. Following the attack of scarlet fever there was slight loss of power on the left side of the face, articulation being correspondingly impaired, while with the continuance of the deafness the speech was still further diminished till the child finally became mute.

The history of the case points to an extension of the inflammation from the pharynx and Eustachian tubes to the middle ear, with a resultant purulent secretion and subsequent perforation of the membrana tympani, followed about three days later by an extension of the inflammation to the labyrinth, and resulting in total loss of perception of sound. The subsequent examinations instituted for the purpose of testing the possibility of a remnant of perceptive power in the labyrinth were carefully conducted with the assistance of Mr. Bell, the instrument principally employed for the tests being the prismatic tuning-fork, arranged with sliding clamps and a spring-hammer for the purpose of varying the quality and intensity of the tones. To obtain a greater range, three tuning-forks, A', a', and a'' respectively, were used.

In the two lower-toned tuning-forks the clamps were arranged to give prominence to the dominant and fifth successively, and the tuning-forks were set in vibration by a blow from the spring-hammer, the head of which, when drawn to a distance of half an inch from the fork, struck it with a force of one pound avoirdupois.

Objective Examination.—Auricle and meatus on both sides perfectly normal.

Membrana tympani on both sides of a pearl gray color, quite concave, and having a large cicatrix in the centre, marking the original perforation.

Eustachian tubes free, the air being readily forced into the middle ears.

The hearing was tested first by means of a watch (normal hearing distance of which is five feet) placed successively over the ear, over the mastoid process, and in contact with the teeth. There was no perception of the ticking of the watch.

The tuning-forks, arranged and set in vibration as above described, were then successively applied, the stem of each fork being placed

in turn upon the mastoid process, in front of the ear, at the junction of the occipital and sagittal sutures at the apex, and finally held tightly between the teeth.

With none of these tests was there any perception of sound, although the vibration was plainly distinguished; and the tuning-fork being placed in her hand, the patient described the sensation as identical with that produced by the vibrating tuning-fork held between the teeth or placed in contact with the head. To ascertain how far the sense of feeling might replace the sense of hearing in distinguishing various tones by a perception of the difference in the vibrations, the patient was blindfolded and the large tuning-fork A', set at various tones within an octave above the fourth of the dominant tone, was held between the teeth. The patient was able to distinguish a difference, which she could not describe, however, other than by comparison to the varying sensations in the throat, accompanying the modulation of the voice, and though able to distinguish a change in the tone, could not tell whether any one tone was higher or lower than the one preceding it. In order to determine more conclusively the existence or absence of any perception of sound, the above tests with the tuning-fork were repeated under the influence of the galvanic current. The Stöhrer zinc and carbon battery was the one employed. The tuning-fork A' was made an electrode, and applied over the mastoid process and in front of the ear, the other electrode being held in the hand of the opposite side.

The current was gradually increased from two to four, six, and eight elements, without any perceptible effect, other than causing a slight dizziness. There was no perception of sound whatever.

CASE 2. *Miss Dudley*, aged 17 years. Congenital deaf-mute, in good general health.

The history, so far as it could be obtained, gave no evidence of there ever having been any perception of sound.

The auricle and meatus on both sides perfectly normal. The membra tympani on both sides perfectly normal, with the exception of a slight opacity. Eustachian tubes free.

The tests with the watch and the tuning-fork gave precisely the same results as in the preceding case, so far as the want of perception of sound is concerned.

NOTICES OF THE PRESS.

[From the Boston Daily Evening Transcript.]

TEACHING THE DUMB TO SPEAK.—As may be generally known, there has been for many years a system of teaching the deaf and dumb to talk, and also to understand what is said to them, solely by imitation; that is, they are taught to imitate the motion of the mouth in talking, so that in time they become capable of talking themselves.

There was an interesting exhibition given at No. 11 Pemberton square, this forenoon, of an entirely different method of teaching. Mr. A. Graham Bell gave illustrations in teaching by what is known as "Visible Speech," a system invented by his father, Professor Bell, of England, twenty-five years ago, with no thought at that time of its adaptability to this purpose.

By this system every sound that can be produced by the human mouth can be written down correctly, so that they can again be pronounced by any one who has learned the alphabet. Not only is every sound represented by a character, but the characters themselves are symbolical; that is, they bear a suggestive resemblance to the organs of speech or the position of organs used in their formation.

After its completion it was subjected to the severest tests, and was pronounced as nearly perfect as it could be.

It was first applied to the instruction of the deaf and dumb in England, in 1869, with very gratifying success, and a theoretical plan developed for teaching it.

Mr. Bell claimed for this many advantages over the old system of teaching by imitation, in which a correct utterance was seldom or never attained. The symbolical character of the letters, he claimed, was a great help in teaching the pupil—it being in fact, as its name implies, written speech; not only the sounds of the word being represented, but the characters that represented the sounds being as it were a sort of picture of the organs producing the sounds.

Mr. Bell then gave illustrations with pupils who had been under his instruction for about three months. Two little children—a girl of about four years of age, and a boy of eight or ten—were brought forward to show the method used in the first steps.

A young lady who was born deaf and dumb gave the pronunciation of various words in French, German, and other foreign languages, and also read the Lord's Prayer plainly and distinctly, so that every word could be heard.

The exercises closed with a recitation, by one of the young lady pupils, of a dialogue in verse, "The Thrush and the Starling," which as a recitation would have been creditable to any one, the inflections and gestures being given with grace and precision. When it is considered that the pupil was deaf and dumb, it seemed truly a miracle.

There were present to witness the exhibition members of the Boston School Committee, and many ladies and gentlemen interested in the work of educating this unfortunate class.

[From the Boston Courier.]

The exhibition which Mr. A. Graham Bell gave last Wednesday to illustrate his method of teaching the deaf and dumb to speak was attended by many prominent educators and philanthropists, all of whom congratulated Mr. Bell on the success which has attended his labors. It was unanimously thought that the exhibition should be repeated on a larger scale and in a larger hall, and the Hon. John D. Philbrick, the Hon. George B. Emerson, and Professors Monroe and Churchill, were appointed a committee to arrange for such an exhibition.

[From the Boston Post.]

"**VISIBLE SPEECH.**"—All who attended Professor A. Melville Bell's lectures and readings at the Lowell Institute last winter will be glad to hear that he proposes to give another series shortly, and

is expected to arrive in Boston next week. His son, Mr. A. Graham Bell, during the last three months has devoted himself to the instruction of deaf-mutes in Boston, at the Institute, No. 11 Pemberton square. He came here after a varied experience in teaching deaf-mutes to speak, and confines himself solely to that specialty. His object and the object of Professor Bell's system, as applied to deaf-mutes, is simply to teach them to articulate, and, in articulating, to give the proper inflection to each word in the sentence uttered. That is, to teach them to speak the same as those who can hear, so that though deaf they are no longer mute. To accomplish so great and desirable an end, Professor Bell has devised a series of symbols, which easily and intelligently represent every sound to which the human voice is capable of giving utterance. These symbols are founded upon the shape of the mouth, the tongue, the soft palate, the throat, and the nose, together with signs denoting inspiration and respiration.

These hieroglyphics—for they really are the same as picture-writing—convey to the pupil an exact idea of the position to be occupied by the organs of speech in uttering the sounds indicated by them. Though they appear difficult at the start, their significance and value are very readily acquired by any one possessing an average degree of intelligence.

But to make sure and to guard against all chance of confusion in idea, Professor Bell has invented what he terms a "manipulator." This is simply a small stem of ivory, say four inches long, with an end the same as the head of a rake, but without teeth. The Bells, very justly, have an idea that no one can teach the deaf to speak who does not himself know how to place the organs of speech so as to produce any sound desired. Hence the "manipulator." The instructor, in cases where the pupil is in doubt, manipulates the organs of speech so as to compel the utterance of the sound sought for, the pupil of course assisting.

In cases of difficulty the pupil gives utterance to some sound it has already learned, and then, by skilful manipulation on the part of the teacher, this sound is changed to the one he is endeavoring to teach. Any pupil, of ordinary aptitude, soon learns to remember the required position of the organs and to utter the sound distinctly. In other words, he learns to speak by feeling. Just as a child learns to speak by imitating sounds it hears, so a deaf-mute, whether congenital or not, can learn to speak, inflect, and intonate, by reproducing certain positions of the organs of speech which have been taught.

Last Wednesday Mr. A. Graham Bell gave an exhibition which illustrated fully the triumph of the system of Visible Speech, in so far as it is applied to deaf-mutes. He began by introducing a little girl, scarcely five years old—a congenital mute—a little boy a few years older, who had just acquired the rudiments of the system, and gradually progressed until he came to pupils who had attained a larger knowledge of his system. He finally introduced two young ladies who had been under his tuition for three months; one of these read the Lord's Prayer with perfect intonation. Her sister in mis-

fortune recited a comic poem in a manner that would have done credit to a comedienne. The poem selected was especially chosen because of the opportunity it afforded for expression and gesture. Mr. Bell certainly ran great risk in attempting its recital, but it shows the confidence he has in his system and his pupil that he took the risk.

Various words in different foreign languages were given him to test whether his pupils could pronounce them. Without a single failure they repeated each word as given. Even in cases where the word was purposely mispronounced, they reproduced the exact pronunciation as given. Perhaps one of the severest tests of the system was made in the case of a third young lady, who was required to recite not only with correct inflection and modulation of tone, but also to express facially the feelings expressed by the words. The result was a complete success.

A number of the prominent citizens of Boston were present at the exhibition. After it had terminated each in turn congratulated Mr. Bell upon the great success which had attended his labors. It was unanimously thought desirable that the exhibition should be repeated upon a larger scale and in a larger hall. The Hon. Mr. Philbrick, superintendent of the public schools of Boston, the Hon. Dr. Emerson, and Professors Monroe and Churchill, were accordingly appointed a committee to provide a suitable place in which to give a second exhibition, of which due notice will be given to those interested.

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